The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 14, 1899.

The Week.

The real censor at Manila, about whose doings we have heard so much, stands revealed in the extremely interesting letter which the correspondent of the Associated Press has sent to its general manager. Gen. Otis and the officer whom he detailed for the duty were merely agents of a higher power, operating by cable from Washington. The acting censor revealed this fact again and again in such explanations of his conduct as these: "My instructions are to let nothing go that can hurt the Administration." "Of course, we all know that we are in a terrible mess out here, but we don't want the people to get excited about it. If you fellows will only keep quiet now, we will pull through in time without any fuss at home." "My instructions are to shut out everything that could hurt McKinley's Administration." Who was it that was so anxious to keep the people at home in the dark, and to shut out everything that would injure the prospects of McKinley's reëlection? Does anybody suppose that Gen. Otis was following out that policy on his own motion, with no intimation from Washington that such a course would be approved? What he was doing at Manila with the press dispatches, the War Department officials were doing at Washington with his dispatches. Nothing was allowed to come out that would injure the Administration. It has been a huge bunco game from the start, conducted with the blind hope that if the facts could be kept from the people here, some way out of the mess could be found.

We are not surprised to notice that the Imperialist newspapers are unable to find room in their columns for Gen. Lawton's views about the Philippine situation, as ventilated in the *Congregationalist*. The volume of expert opinion against the McKinley policy of peace by extermination if necessary is becoming too formidable to be contemplated with serenity. It includes now all the names of greatest weight in both branches of the service, and all the names of the newspaper correspondents in the islands. "I have never been in favor of violence toward the Filipinos. Rather than make a war of conquest on this people I would up anchor and sail out of the harbor," says Admiral Dewey. "What we want is to stop this accursed war. It is time for diplomacy, time for mutual understanding; these men are indomitable. All they want is a little justice," says Gen. Lawton, the military commander in the field in the islands, and the man who knows more about the Filipinos than any other in the army. Gen. Funston's view, expressed months ago, was the same: "Less gunpowder and more diplomacy." His latest view, now that the first has been overruled, is that "whipping the insurgents is the only solution; they will never surrender." Gen. Ovenshine, just home from service with Gen. Lawton, says: "I do not like to prophesy, but I think that with plenty of troops the insurrection would be crushed out within a few months after the dry season begins, but I may be mistaken." Crush them out, says McKinley. "They assailed our sovereignty, and *there will be no useless parley, no pause till the insurrection is suppressed.*" Are the American people in favor of this policy—this merciless prosecution of an "accursed war" against an indomitable people who only "want a little justice"?

The most striking and significant deliverance from the religious press that has appeared since the war in the Philippines began, is from the Chicago *Advance*. This is the leading organ of the Congregationalist denomination published west of the Alleghanies; its political sympathies are strongly Republican; and it fairly represents the feelings of the Middle West, upon which the McKinley Administration has depended for unswerving support of the expansion policy. The *Advance* frankly confesses that "the Philippine question is causing trouble of heart to many good people"; it plainly declares that some of the reasons urged for the subjugation of the Filipinos "do not commend themselves to the righteous sentiment of the country"; and it clearly exposes the fallacy and hypocrisy of several of the pleas for a war of conquest which have been put forth by militant clergymen. The conclusion of the *Advance*, that "it ought to be found possible speedily to improve the situation," difficult as that situation is, represents a sentiment which Mr. McKinley cannot afford to disregard.

The War Department has issued a statement showing the cost of collecting the customs duties in Cuba which might well draw forth some comment from Secretary Gage. For the first six months of 1899, the expense of collections in Cuba was 3.30 per cent. of the revenue, while in the United States it was 4.62. At the port of Havana this expense was only 2.37 per cent., which is lower than at any port in this country. The percentage at New York is 2.80, and it is excessively high at the smaller ports. At New Orleans and at Baltimore it is between 13 and 14, which is certainly large enough to demand explanation. When it is considered that the customs service in Cuba was a veritable sink of corruption, and that the reorganization has hardly yet been completed by the officers of the United States, we may look for even better results hereafter. We do not look for such results in this country, because the collection of revenue is here carried on to a great extent by politicians for politicians. When our army officers give place to civilians in Cuba, we see little reason to hope that the administration of the customs service there will be any better than it is here, and much reason to fear that it may be worse.

The action of the American Bankers' Association on the currency question last week was most significant. It adopted a resolution declaring that "the bankers of the United States most earnestly recommend that the Congress of the United States at its next session enact a law to more firmly and unequivocally establish the gold standard in this country, by providing that the gold dollar, which under the law is the unit of value, shall be the standard and measure of all values in the United States; that all the obligations of the Government and all paper money, including the circulating notes of national banks, shall be redeemed in gold coin; and that the legal-tender notes of the United States, when paid into the Treasury, shall not be reissued except upon the deposit of an equivalent amount of gold coin." This clear, explicit, and comprehensive declaration was not merely adopted by the Association; it was adopted by a unanimous vote, and "with deafening applause." While the resolution was introduced by a representative of New York city, the Association contained a large number of delegates from all parts of the country, and the fact that they were of one mind in taking this pronounced position is important and encouraging.

Even more so, however, was the position taken by the Republican State convention in Maryland on the same day with reference to the currency question. The framers of the platform put this issue to the front by devoting the first resolution to the demands of the financial situation. "We believe in the gold standard," this resolution says; but it does not stop with this statement, nor does it proceed with glittering generalities. Not only do the Maryland Republicans believe in the gold standard, but also "that all our currency should be made by law redeemable in gold coin at the option of the holder." Nor are they content with the simple expression of belief in such good doctrine. "To this faith," the resolution concludes, "we confident-

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ly pledge the influence and votes of the Maryland members in each house of Congress." The Republicanism of Maryland, on the Atlantic seaboard, thus reëchoes the demand of Iowa's, in the Mississippi valley, a month ago, that "the permanence of the gold standard must be assured by congressional legislation giving to it the validity of public law," and that "all other money must be kept at a parity with gold"; and that "we urgently call upon our Senators and Representatives in Congress to lend their best endeavors to enact these propositions into law." If the party generally would show the same courage, the question of the gold standard might be settled finally at the session of Congress next winter.

The Maryland platform clearly betrays the embarrassment which the Republican politicians feel about taking a stand regarding the Philippine question. Of course, the resolutions praise the soldiers and sailors who took part in "the late war with Spain" (the Democratic opponents of expansion always do this), and extend their recognition of the army and navy to the bravery manifested in the fighting which has gone on since the war with Spain ended. As for the situation in the Philippine Islands, the Maryland Republicans "deplore the insurrection," and say that "duty demands that we retain and pacify them and safeguard the interests of commerce." But they do not declare that we must retain the islands permanently. On the contrary, the resolution goes on to say—"until the problem of their final disposition be solved in such manner that the glory of our flag be not sullied nor the liberty it stands for restrained," adding that "we repose our trust for such a solution of the problem in our wise and patriotic President and the Republican majority in Congress." This leaves the way open for the ultimate retreat of the United States and the concession of independence to the Filipinos. It is, verbally, highly significant that the policy of conquest should be thus quite ignored and virtually condemned by the Republicans in a close State, where they recognize the necessity of doing every thing possible to strengthen their party with the people.

Virginia Republicanism became thoroughly demoralized when it surrendered to Mahone. That boss died some years ago, but the party has not yet recovered its character. A Legislature is to be elected in Virginia this fall, which will choose a United States Senator. The Republican State executive committee has just issued an address, not to urge an active campaign against the Democracy, not to advise the nomination of the strongest possible candidates, not to point out the way to secure an honest election, but to advise that no Republican candidate for the Legislature be nominated in any district of the State! The excuse put forward is that "for some years elections in Virginia, under the pretended forms of law, have been miserable farces," and that it is of no use for Republicans to go to the polls. A more contemptible figure has never been cut by any political organization in a State which it has once controlled. The masses of the party do not conceal their disgust with the managers who recommend such a policy. A convention to nominate Republican candidates for the Legislature has already been called in Rockbridge County, and this example will probably be followed in a number of other counties.

An interesting and important decision affecting the whole country has been rendered by the United States District Court for Arkansas. A few weeks ago a strike broke out among the coal miners of Arkansas, like the one in Illinois last year. The operators of Arkansas, like those of Illinois, found that they could hire men in other States, especially negroes in the South, to work for wages which their old employees had rejected. The strikers attempted to keep these rivals out of the State, and to make the courts help them in so doing. They alleged that the coal companies proposed to import armed men of a low and lawless character, and the judge of a State court granted an injunction restraining the companies from bringing in such men. Judge Rogers of the Federal Court has dissolved this injunction, and has laid down the broad principle that, under the Constitution of the United States, no State has the right to prohibit the citizens of another State from entering it in search of work. He points out that the fourteenth amendment guarantees equal protection to all, and he holds that under that amendment persons have a perfect right to go from one State into another in the pursuit of employment, and that it is not within the power of a State to stop them, so long as they do not belong to certain interdicted classes, like convicts, idiots, lepers, and persons afflicted with contagious diseases. As the men against whom the State court granted an injunction did not belong to any of these classes, the action of that court was null and void.

It seems that there is a higher office in this country than that occupied by Mr. McKinley. This office is held by a Mr. Gubbins, and its title is that of President of the Bricklayers' and Stone Masons' International Union. Mr. Gubbins informs the people of the United States that President McKinley will not be allowed to lay the cornerstone of their new post-office building at Chicago unless he becomes a member of the Union. Neither the President of the United States nor any citizen thereof is allowed to handle a trowel in the city of Chicago without complying with this condition. Should the President be so insubordinate as to set a stone prepared by non-union labor, that will be the last stone laid in this post-office building. The masons belonging to the Union will refuse to work on it thereafter, or to let any one else work. Whether any way of purging himself of contempt of this trade-union is provided we do not know; but there is some danger of incurring the contempt of a larger Union unless Mr. McKinley asserts his own independence and that of laborers in general.

Evidence accumulates from every quarter showing the intensity of the feeling against the great industrial combinations. This feeling is so general that it cannot fail to affect the issues in politics. The Republicans have control of the government of the country; these great combinations are going on; therefore, the Republicans are responsible for them. That is the manner in which the people reason, and the Republican party must take the consequences of the possession of power. It will have to do something more than pass resolutions if it is to maintain its control. This truth is dawning upon the minds of many Republicans, among whom is ex-Senator Washburn of Minnesota. He frankly says that unless some effective legislation is devised, the popular discontent is so great that it will probably bring about the defeat of the Republican party. That party, he truly says, "is associated with Trusts in the minds of the masses. We have reached a crisis," he adds, "as a party, where we have got to call a halt. The party must disconnect itself from Trusts. It should put forth its entire strength and legislate against them. The feeling in the Republican party is so intense in the West that, unless something is done, it will break ranks." So much for the disease; for the remedy, Mr. Washburn openly declares that the Republican party must modify its protective policy. It must abolish all protective duties where it is evident that a Trust is making exorbitant profits by reason of those duties. The duties on steel rails and on tin-plate should be immediately abolished. Mr. Washburn admits that when he was in the Senate he did his best to impose a heavy duty on imported tin-plate. He believed that it would establish and build up the industry, and it did. It built it up to such an extent that it has made exorbitant profits. The protective duty, Mr. Washburn with much simplicity observes, is being used to put up the price of tin-plate. He is frightened at the success of his legislation, and would gladly undo his work.

Gov. Roosevelt is left in an awkward

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position by the action of the Comptroller of the State in deciding that something like $700,000 of claims for canal work against the State are illegal. The general ground for his decision is that in authorizing contractors to do the work on which these claims are based, without first getting the consent of the Canal Board, Aldridge and Adams acted illegally, and that hence the expense thereby incurred does not constitute a legal claim against the State. The Comptroller goes into the matter very thoroughly, citing the terms of the law and the acts of Aldridge and Adams, and makes out what seems to be a strong case against them. He shows that, under the plea of increase in the quantity of work, Aldridge and Adams really made changes in the original plans, and in so doing violated the law which requires such changes to be approved by the Canal Board. It may be that in thus proceeding in "direct violation of the plain and express provisions of the statute," Aldridge and Adams did not commit acts which made them liable to criminal prosecution, but can the Governor say again, in view of the Comptroller's position, what he said in his revised opinion of the canal scandal?—"I think the charges of corruption were baseless, and discreditable in the highest degree to those making them."

It has been generally supposed that the country is very prosperous, but the Tax Commissioners of the State of New York seem to hold a different opinion. Outside of New York and Brooklyn they find that the people are getting poor. In other words, these Commissioners have increased the assessed value of real property in New York by more than $165,000,000, and in Brooklyn by $14,000,000, while the assessments have almost everywhere else been reduced. Outside of the city of New York, the Commissioners find about $20,000,000 less property than last year. They raise the assessments in nine counties by more than $200,000,000, and reduce them in fifty-two counties by the same amount. As the assessments have already been greatly raised in the city of New York by the local authorities, the future of the property-owner here is not bright. Any morning he may wake up and find that an annual charge of $5,000,000, as in the case of the Ramapo water enterprise, has been fastened as a permanent lien on his dwelling, and, after his local rulers have plundered him, the State Commissioners descend on him with enlarged demands. The situation is a very serious one. Under the Raines liquor law a large revenue is collected in New York city for the benefit of the rural districts, and, not content with that, the rural statesmen are constantly increasing the valuation here. The total valuation of the real property in the State is now about $4,414,000,000, and nearly three-fifths of this is held to be in New York city and its immediate vicinity. The question naturally arises whether this community, having the greater part of the wealth of the State, might not be detached from the country districts and allowed to apply its revenues to its own uses. Our city government is bad enough, but the Albany legislators do nothing to make it better, and a good deal to make it worse.

Croker has returned and has resumed his benign habit of talking freely with the reporters. His remarks are unusually interesting. For the life of him he does not know who is behind the Ramapo grab. He has no money in it and no interest in it, but he has unbounded faith in Holahan and Dalton as honest men and devoted public servants. If they say there is something "good" in the proposition to pay $200,000,000 for the supply, the public can rest assured that there is some ground for the belief. As for being mere tools of Croker, the man who would say that of Holahan and Dalton would say anything. "They ain't the kind of men to take orders from any one." It will be useless, evidently, to get from them any light upon the real mystery of the Ramapo Grab. Croker feels sure about that; but he suspects that light can be obtained in another quarter. He does not think much of the course of the Mazet Committee in issuing subpœnas to Frank Platt and Gen. Tracy. "If they want to get at the truth of the matter, why don't they go to the fountain head?" That's what we say. Why not summon the Old Man? What does the boy know about it? Is it likely that the Old Man reveals to him all the secrets of the business? What the public wants is the news at first hand, and the Hon. Thomas C. Platt himself is the only man who can furnish it.

Mr. Mazet announces that his committee will not summon Senator Platt as a witness unless more occasion arises for doing so than exists at present. "To hear Mr. Croker talk," he says, "one would think it was the Republican party, and not Tammany, which is administering the affairs of the city, and is responsible for the conduct of the municipality." Tammany is unquestionably administering the affairs of this city, but who is responsible for that fact? Not Croker, but Platt. Mr. Mazet says it is the purpose of the committee to "sift the Ramapo matter to the bottom." Why not sift the election of 1897 to the bottom also? In both instances, as soon as the bottom is reached, two familiar Republican personages will be discovered lying *perdus*—Platt and Tracy. Why did Gen. Lacy loom at the front as President of the company when legislation was needed at Albany to put the Ramapo job on its feet? Why did he loom at the front as candidate for Mayor when it became necessary to put Croker in possession of the government of this city? Who was the man behind him in both these transactions? Surely not Croker, for by himself Croker could never have accomplished anything with either scheme. Gen. Tracy has not been Croker's man, but Platt's man, and if the committee wishes to probe Platt deviltries to the bottom it must begin with Platt.

The wave of arrogant imperialism which has swept the Liberal party in England from its old bearings meets with occasional resistance. Mr. Morley and Mr. Harrison refuse to yield, and their appeals to the consciences of Englishmen cannot easily be disregarded. The *Economist*, it is satisfactory to observe, realizes the folly of the domineering tone of Mr. Chamberlain's speeches, and strongly advocates moderation. It insists that the concessions offered by President Krüger are properly accompanied by the stipulation that the integrity and internal independence of the republic shall be guaranteed. It is unworthy of the British Government, it says, to assume that these concessions are not made in good faith, and it holds that the discussion should be ended. The really sinister feature of the situation is that the more the Boers concede, the more the noisy section of the Outlanders demand. As one of them confessed, they do not want the vote, but they do want the mines. The *Economist* does not hesitate to denounce the outcry against the Boer preparations for war as "sheer, arrogant nonsense." The English, forsooth, "are to send out officers, troops, and ammunition, and the Boers against whom these are to be used are to sit down quietly and cultivate farms as if nothing at all were taking place." What is needed is a reasonable and peaceful spirit on both sides. Mr. Rhodes's brutal statement that there will be peace because Mr. Krüger will yield to irresistible force, and that henceforth the Transvaal will be in the hands of the Outlanders, is precisely the kind of talk which endangers peace. Even such resolutions as those passed by the Canadian Parliament are to be deprecated. They may have been meant to show affection for the mother country, but the *Economist* politely suggests that the Canadians had better mind their own business, and that it is not dignified or wise to assume that the fate of the British empire depends on whether a few thousand people on the Rand are to qualify for the suffrage during seven years or five. The *Economist* closes its very judicious review of the situation with the words: "Do not let an exaggerated imperialism make us ridiculous before the world. Our empire was not built up that way."

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THE DREYFUS VERDICT.

"Le monde entier attend," said Major Carrière, opposing the adjournment of the court when Labori was struck down, and it was the truest word which came from him during the whole trial. It was really the jury of the civilized world before which Dreyfus was tried. Those officers at Rennes, ordered to find him guilty as they might have been ordered to storm a redoubt, had nominal but not the real jurisdiction of his case. The enlightened judgment of mankind has been passing upon the evidence as it was submitted from day to day. Nothing like it was ever known before in the history of the world. No trial of king or colossal criminal ever held the breathless attention of all classes in all countries as has that of this obscure French captain. His insignificant personality but threw into stronger relief the immense issues which were bound up in his fate. The telegraph made all men spectators at the Dreyfus trial—as they could not have been at the trial of Charles, or Louis, or Warren Hastings, or Robespierre—and in his person they saw imperilled justice, innocence appealing to brute force, martyrdom crying out, "Arise, oh God, judge the earth!"

And the entire world has not only waited; it has delivered its verdict—the only verdict that counts. Public opinion has been in this case a competent judge. The decisive evidence was not wrapped up in legal technicalities which only trained minds could weigh. It was a question of fact, which the rough common sense of mankind could form an opinion upon as well as the best judge that ever lived. And it should be remarked that the account of the testimony, as telegraphed, has been substantially accurate. Comparison with the full stenographic reports shows that all the material points were given to the world as to the court-martial. This time the thing was not done in a corner. There is no chance to say, as there was in 1894, that the judges, being honorable men, must have had in their secret proceedings evidence ample to convict Dreyfus. The doors were open; all of the 1894 evidence was repeated; all that five years of espionage and the efforts of the most skilled secret service in the world could rake together was added, and what was the total? A mountain of suspicion, a great "perhaps," a vehement assertion that Dreyfus might have been a traitor. Not one material fact was proved. That any documents were delivered was not shown; that Dreyfus delivered them there was not the slightest attempt to prove. This being so, a verdict of guilty condemns only the men who pronounce it.

They themselves, moreover, show by the fumbling and cowardly terms of their judgment that they know it to be in the teeth of the evidence and of morality. The verdict, in fact, bears every mark of being an arranged compromise. Two judges were for acquitting Dreyfus outright. It is rumored, and the result makes it probable, that a third was hesitant, and finally agreed to vote for conviction only on condition that the penalty be made light and that the court find "extenuating circumstances." Now this was precisely the plea that Gen. Mercier tried to extract from Dreyfus in 1894. It is practically a plea for mercy. But no, reported Du Paty de Clam, Dreyfus would not confess to anything; "above all, he will not plead *circonstances atténuantes*." Yet the court-martial now makes the plea for him! That is, it recommends him to mercy. So the verdict is: Dreyfus is a traitor; his punishment is imprisonment for ten years, five of which are already served, and if he could be pardoned the rest, the court would be very glad. Such a shuffling verdict is really a verdict against the judges.

"Military justice is not your justice," sneered Gen. Mercier one day, in reply to Labori. Evidently. In the light of the event, the conclusion becomes irresistible that the officers of the court-martial were expected to convict, just as they might be expected to execute any disagreeable military duty to which they were assigned. When Col. Jouaust deliberately excluded the critical testimony of Schwarzkoppen and Panizzardi, hopes of honest men rose high. He must be intending to acquit; otherwise how could he hold up his head after shutting out witnesses who would make it impossible not to acquit? But we see now that he was only a soldier, not a judge. He set his teeth and did this thing to "save the army," just as he would have blown up a house filled with women and children if it were necessary to save the army. He was armed with "pouvoir discrétionnaire," and he used it as if it were poison or a dagger, to dispose of an enemy of the French army. It was Gen. Mercier's "military justice," which we now see to mean brute force.

In our keen disappointment and resentment we must, however, be fair. France stands disgraced before the world by this terrible denial of justice; but let us not be unjust in apportioning the guilt. That the mass of the people hail the verdict; that royalist and Catholic newspapers acclaim it as the judgment of God; that the army is frantic with joy; that the populace who greeted the unspeakable Esterhazy a year ago as the embodiment of French military honor should now have only scoffs and hisses for the sufferer at Rennes, strong in his own innocence—these are the things which are black for France, and which will make men look askance at her for many a day. But the French Government is not directly involved; it did and risked everything to secure revision. French civil justice is not stained; the Court of Cassation held the scales even in the presence of the popular whirlwind, and there is no doubt what its decision would have been if Dreyfus could have been tried before the upright judges composing that tribunal. The mind and conscience of France came nobly to the side of Dreyfus. Even the popularity-seeking Brunetière will not dare repeat his mumblings about the *chose jugée*. It is not sober and informed France that is shamed by this monstrous wrong. What we see in it is the flaming passion of a misled populace, the malice of wicked journalism; above all, the frenzied fear lest anything be done to impair the prestige of the French army. The Dreyfus verdict is the army vindicating the army. It is French "military justice," which the world now understands to be the grossest injustice under the forms of law.

COLONIAL POLICY.

The people of the United States have lately been favored with much counsel from foreigners concerning the management of their external affairs. Heretofore we have had no foreign policy, and few entanglements with the foreign policies of other governments. Henceforth we shall inevitably become involved in such entanglements, and must necessarily develop some policy in the management of possessions in which other nations have interests. Therefore, we do not question the propriety of the conduct of foreigners in offering us suggestions. Some of their advice is good and some bad. The motives which prompt it are various, and much of it is colored by foreign prejudice and prepossession. Even when their motives are disinterested, our advisers are frequently ignorant of the character of our government and of the weaknesses of our administrative system. On the whole, with the exception of the counsels of such tried friends as Mr. Bryce and Mr. Morley, we can hardly say that we have derived much enlightenment from foreign admonition.

Yet there are some counsels which take the form of information rather than advice, and the value of these is undeniable. Mr. Alleyne Ireland, in a paper read before the Social Science Association at Saratoga, has thrown a strong light on the financial administration of colonies, and his statements deserve general attention. He begins with a proposition which we have steadily maintained, but which is entirely contrary to the theories which our dominant party has professed as well as to the practice of our government. It is the simple proposition that trade is barter, with the corollaries that it is impossible to sell much to people who produce little, to sell more to people, in the long run, than we buy of them, or to export without importing. In illustrating this proposition, Mr. Ireland shows that the idea that colonies

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should yield a direct revenue to the sovereign state has been entirely exploded. It is only the British colonies that deserve particular attention, and to-day Mr. Ireland tells us, not a single British colony contributes a cent to the imperial treasury. These colonies are divided into those which are self-governing and those which are not. Self-governing colonies are outside the field of this discussion, and practically all the colonies administered by the British Government lie within the tropics. In Mr. Ireland's words, "Every colony which manages its own finances lies outside the tropics; every colony within the tropics has its finances controlled by the home Government."

When we examine the statistics of trade, we are at once struck with the fact that tropical peoples are very poor customers. They are indisposed to exertion; they therefore produce little and can consume little. During the period 1893 to 1897, " the United Kingdom imported yearly from her non-tropical countries goods to the value of $23.18 per head of the population of those colonies, while from her tropical colonies she imported only sixty-six cents' worth of goods per capita. In other words, as a source of supply, each man, woman, and child in the non-tropical colonies was thirty-five times more valuable to the United Kingdom than an inhabitant of the tropical colonies." Owing to the large investments of British capital in the non-tropical colonies, which yield their return in the merchandise that they send to England, exports to these colonies are less than imports from them, and now amount to only $12.32 per capita; but the exports to the tropical colonies nearly balance the imports, being but seventy-one cents per capita. Even on the basis of exports alone, the value of the people of the non-tropical colonies, as customers, is nearly twenty times that of the people of the tropical colonies.

On further examination, however, we find a great difference between the tropical colonies. Some of them are much more valuable customers than others. This difference Mr. Ireland attributes to the difference in labor conditions. In some colonies the labor supply consists of imported contract labor. In others the population is so dense as to press on the means of subsistence. In the third class the natives are not so numerous as to be forced to hire out as laborers or starve, and no laborers are imported. In colonies of the first class the exports are very large, amounting in British Guiana, Mauritius, and Trinidad during the period from 1882 to 1891 to the yearly average per head of $45.58. In colonies of the second class this average is not much more than half as great, and in the third it is only one-quarter.

Since there are very few parts of the tropics where there is any pressure of population on the food supply, we may eliminate the second class of colonies from the problem. We are thus brought face to face with the alternative: either introduce contract labor, or be content with meagre returns from tropical colonies; either establish some form of slavery—for that is what is meant by "contract labor"—and make money, or let men be free, and lose it. So long as men are free they will not bind themselves to work continuously, and they cannot be utilized by absent capitalists unless they work continuously. As Mr. Ireland says, the necessity for the use of imported contract labor in tropical colonies arises from the fact that when a man can satisfy all his wants merely from the bounty of nature, he will not devote himself to steady work. If the tropical colonies are to be developed, some way of making people work must be found, and the device of getting them to make contracts for long terms is the only way that has proved successful.

Mr. Ireland remarks: "I am not prepared to claim that we have any right to go to the man in the tropics and say to him: Come, quit this life of pleasant idleness and work five days a week for me." That is not the aspect of the case which he undertook to discuss; but it is precisely the aspect of the case which the people of this country must consider. They may rely on Mr. Ireland's statement that if they expect to make a profit out of their tropical possessions they must introduce contract labor. If they do so, they must declare that it is right to say to the man in the tropics, Come work for me; and to punish him if he does not comply with the terms of his contract. This issue has been shirked hitherto, but it cannot be shirked much longer. We read that thirty-six Galician laborers have just been released from jail in Hawaii, having been imprisoned since last September for breaking their contracts. Compulsion of this kind must be maintained if our dreams of colonial wealth are to be realized, and very soon the people of the United States will have to say whether or no the principle of slavery shall be reëstablished.

THE FALL CAMPAIGN.

The States of the Union have so generally made the terms of their Governors either two years or four, and put the elections of these officials in the even-numbered years, that there are only a half-dozen commonwealths among the forty-five which will choose their executives in the fall of 1899—Massachusetts in the East, Mississippi in the South, Maryland, Kentucky, Ohio, and Iowa in the central belt running west from the Atlantic. Two other States, Pennsylvania and Nebraska, are to elect minor State officers, and members of the Legislature are to be chosen in New York, New Jersey, and Virginia, as well as in most of the States which elect Governors. These new Legislatures in Iowa, Virginia, and Mississippi will have United States Senatorships to dispose of.

So many of the few States in this brief list are one-sided in politics that the range of popular interest in the fall campaign is very limited. In Virginia and Mississippi there is no Republican opposition, and the real election in each of these States is decided when the Democrats make their nominations for the offices at stake. Massachusetts and Iowa are so overwhelmingly Republican that there is only a languid curiosity to see how bad the inevitable Democratic defeat will be this time. Pennsylvania can be in doubt only when the Republican opponents of Quay heartily coöperate with the Democrats in a fight against him, and this year the Republican "insurgents" are entirely inactive. Republican success in the legislative elections in New Jersey seems certain.

There remain two of what used to be called the border States, and two more in what was once the West, which are having campaigns of much interest. Both Maryland and Kentucky elected Republican Governors in 1895, and thus broke a record of Democratic victories which had not been interrupted for a generation. Success proved a hard strain for the victors in each case, and bitter factional controversies have arisen among the Republicans, which injure their chances this year in both Kentucky and Maryland. In Kentucky, however, there is a fight among the Democrats which is so bitter that it makes Republican dissensions seem by comparison like friendly intercourse. The "regular" candidate secured his nomination by methods so offensive, and he is personally so detested by a large element in his party, that another Democrat, who is a vigorous campaigner, has taken the field with abundant support, and Republican success seems certain if the present conditions shall continue until election day.

A campaign for Governor in Ohio is always watched with interest by the nation—especially when it comes the year before a Presidential election, and the man who is President, and the probable candidate of his party for another term, is from Ohio. Of course, there is trouble among the Republicans of Ohio this year; there always is. The contest before the State convention between Hanna and the wing of his party which opposes him was very bitter, and harmony has not been restored since the triumph of the boss. But there is even more bitter warfare among the Democrats, and an important element in the party openly repudiates the nomination of their boss, John R. McLean, for Governor. The candidate put by Hanna at the head of his ticket is personally a good man, and it will be much easier for dissatisfied Republicans to support him than for the

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outraged Democrats to accept the man in their party whom they most detest.

The choice of a judge of the Supreme Court in Nebraska would attract no notice outside of the State except for one consideration. Nebraska is Bryan's State, this is the last contest in it before the national campaign in which there is every indication that he will again be a candidate for the Presidency, and he has appealed to Nebraska to "lead the van in the great victory which must crown the great conflict of 1900." Bryan himself engineered a fusion of the Democrats, Populists, and Silver Republicans upon one ticket, but so many currents and cross-currents of State interests are running at present that the set of the tide is not as yet visible.

It would not be fair to omit New York from the States about which a good deal of curiosity is felt. No official is to be voted for by all the people, but the lower branch of the Legislature is to be chosen. The Democrats are going to make a hard fight for the control of the Assembly, and hope to do a good deal better than last year, when the Republicans secured 86 of the 150 seats. A Democratic majority this fall would be a serious thing for Gov. Roosevelt, and would be interpreted as a sign of reaction against the Republicans in a State which, if not of late years the "pivotal" one, will always be regarded by politicians of both parties as most important.

The campaign has not yet fully developed in any section. One drift of sentiment, however, is already visible. The people have largely lost their old absorption in the silver question. They are thinking chiefly about the situation in the Philippines, and they are forcing the politicians, somewhat against their wishes in many cases, to let the issue of expansion come to the front. The Republican managers are generally inclined to evade positive declarations. The Democratic politicians are all the time being pushed into more pronounced opposition to the policy of imperialism. The indications at the beginning of September are that, by the opening of November, expansion will be the general theme of discussion.

COLLEGE GRADUATES AND TEACHERS.

The destiny of the swelling host of doctors of philosophy and holders of other higher academic degrees is rapidly attaining the importance of an educational problem. The number of persons, both men and women, so distinguished not only is rapidly increasing, but shows no sign of reaching, in the immediate future, its limit. There is already a portentous list of young scholars who have spent two or three years at some American or European university, acquired much weight of learning in some special department, published a monograph or two, and, perhaps, enjoyed a period of foreign travel. With comparatively few exceptions, they all look forward to teaching as their profession; with equally few exceptions, also, they confidently expect to find their opportunity in some college or university. Some, indeed, with predominantly scientific training, go into business, or find their career as experts in commercial or industrial undertakings. To the great majority, however, openings in such directions make no appeal. Their ambition looks elsewhere for success. To be scholars, and occupy chairs in universities, is their purpose and hope.

That such an ambition is a legitimate and honorable one none, of course, would question. One of its effects, however, has been to cause the supply of specialists steadily to exceed the demand. University officials confess to increasing difficulty in "placing" their men; and there seems little prospect of change. Able and distinguished professors are loath to retire, and seldom resign. Comparatively few new chairs are established from year to year, and the founding of new institutions, once a pleasant diversion of the wealthy, is now, fortunately, infrequent. With all the vigorous growth of the better grade of colleges and universities, there are still more transfers and promotions than additions. The net annual increase of the teaching force of institutions giving the degree of Bachelor of Arts, or its equivalent, does not equal the number of post-graduate degrees annually conferred. Moreover, higher positions, such as those of professor and assistant professor, in institutions of the first rank, are virtually closed to the recent graduate. Occupants of such chairs must be not merely well-furnished scholars, but men of experience and mature judgment, fit for counsel and responsibility as well as for work; and the infrequent vacancies are now almost invariably filled either by promotion, or by calling from another institution men who have already made their mark. For the new-fledged doctors of philosophy there are left, practically, only the minor places, carrying but small salaries, and offering but uncertain chance of advancement save after years of faithful drudgery. Yet so overstocked is the market and so keen is the competition that the bare suspicion of an approaching vacancy is sure to call out a score of eager applications to fill it.

With such conditions prevailing, it seems clear that an increasing number of university graduates, if they are not to abandon their scholarly ambitions altogether, must enter the secondary schools, and find there their career. At present, probably, no suggestion could be, to the average university man, more distasteful. To ask him to become a "school teacher" is, in his view, to ask him to go into exile, to banish himself from his scholarly associations, and to turn his back for ever on the professional life for which he has fondly hoped. It must be admitted that the objection has much to justify it. To an enthusiastic young man or woman, fresh from the inspiring influences of an eager intellectual life, and all aglow with a zeal for learning, the public secondary schools, with their elementary requirements, their routine work, their frequently worn-out or vicious methods, their slavish subjection to arbitrary superintendents and committees, and their political cast and uncertain tenure of office, offer, in truth, a rather dreary and uninviting prospect. Yet we are greatly mistaken if it is not precisely this needy field that holds out, to such men and women—themselves the hope of American culture—the best chance for distinction and the largest opportunity for usefulness.

Indeed, one may fairly ask wherein lies the hope of improvement, if the tide of educated power is not to be turned in this direction. One of the fundamental difficulties with American schools, as has been often pointed out, is the fact that the teachers, in so many instances, are themselves ill-taught. They do not know the subjects they are expected to teach, and, in consequence, they teach them very badly. The whole trend of educational progress is towards the employment of specially trained instructors for the various departments of the preparatory work. Where are these to be found, if not among the graduates of our colleges and universities? Unless we can have the services of the thoroughly equipped expert, we must continue to wait for the reconstruction of the school curriculum, the reorganization of methods of instruction, and all the other reforms which have long been faithfully urged. We shall still lack well-contrived school-houses, adequate salaries, stable tenure of office, and freedom from political meddling. Public opinion will clamor in vain for efficient schools, so long as those best able to make them efficient will have nothing to do with them; for it is the teachers, and not the public, who must take the lead.

One important result of such a change is certain to be the closing of the great gulf which now separates the school from the college and the university. The air of superiority often assumed by what, for want of a better term, have come to be called the "higher" institutions, finds much of its *raison d'être* in the unscholarly work of the secondary schools themselves; and the young graduate who scorns a place in the high school, and takes a petty job in a university instead, knows that many of his former instructors at bottom approve his choice. Transfers from secondary schools to college chairs are so infrequent as to be almost unknown; and a

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man who begins in the former may count, with assurance, on ending his days there. Elsewhere it is not so. In England, scholarly work in the schools is a distinct commendation to higher positions. In Germany, some of the finest product of university training is utilized in the *Gymnasium* and *Realschule*. Teachers in the French schools are highly trained specialists. Sooner or later, we must come to the same thing in the United States. The masterly work of the universities and colleges must be brought to bear on the work of the schools, or the efficiency of the former cannot be maintained. Educationally, we have at present a waste product, whose utilization means the enrichment of the roots of our intellectual life. Whether those who are pursuing knowledge for pure love of it are to give the benefit of it to those who need it most, or whether they are to go on accumulating in selfish satisfaction, is the question soon to be answered.

CO-OPERATIVE PRODUCTION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, August 19, 1899.

The prospects of coöperative production, in the only sense which to many of us seemed worthy of the epithet, were gloomy indeed when I first came in contact with the coöperative movement at the Oxford Congress in 1882. The undertakings founded by F. D. Maurice and his group of Christian Socialists had long ago disappeared; the co-operative cotton-mills of Lancashire had become mere joint-stock companies; the Wholesale Society, resting upon the support of hundreds of retail stores, and establishing one factory after another on completely "capitalistic" lines, seemed to be carrying all before it; and enthusiasts like Hughes, Vansittart Neale, and Greening, protest as they might at each successive Congress, were apparently voices crying in the wilderness. It seemed but too evident that the self-employing workshop was an impossibility in the midst of modern industrial conditions; and very soon Miss Beatrice Potter (Mrs. Sidney Webb) came forward with her brilliantly written book to persuade us that it was not only impracticable, but also undesirable. Production carried on by the Wholesale Society, even though it gave its workers a share neither in profits nor in management, was really more democratic, it was urged, than when engaged in by independent groups of workmen; because it was controlled in the last resort by the great body of consumers in the distributive stores, to whom also fell ultimately all the profits. As if to confirm this argument, most of the little ventures set on foot about this time by ardent idealists (the shirtmakers in London are a case in point) came to grief after a brief period of ineffectual struggle.

Coming back to England in 1898, one of the most unexpected phenomena that confronted me was the greatly changed position in the coöperative world of coöperative production of the independent type. I had known that a new and convenient term had meantime been invented, viz., "Labour Co-partnership"; a term wide enough to include even profit-sharing businesses still financed by individual employers. I knew, also, that a new propagandist society, the "Labour Association," had been founded, with a very active secretary in the person of Mr. Henry Vivian. But what I was not prepared to find was a considerable and increasing number of really thriving productive societies, with a capital of more than two and a half million dollars, and selling goods in the year 1898 to a value of more than four and a half million dollars.

During the present week (August 14-19) the coöperators of Great Britain are holding their annual festival at the Crystal Palace; and the Labor Association has taken the opportunity to arrange for an exhibit there of the products of labor co-partnership undertakings. Though the number of stalls is not large, no one can wander among them and converse with the men in charge without being greatly impressed. There is, of course, the old ardent coöperative faith which has complete confidence in its power of moving mountains; but this is no longer pathetic, for all around are the evidences of actual prosperity. The "literature" most liberally provided takes the convincing form of balance-sheets.

The movement is certainly large enough to engage our respectful attention. But the first thing one has to do is to discriminate; lump statistics are quite valueless in a matter of this kind. One must begin by putting on one side the various flourishing farmers' societies in Ireland for obtaining supplies or marketing produce. They are exceedingly interesting, and deserve an article to themselves; but they cast no light on *industrial* coöperation. Then we must put on one side the Scotch co-partnership undertakings, which are mainly organizations of consumers that allow a bonus to the workpeople in their factories. And finally, when we come to England, we must observe that by far the greater number of the flourishing societies are to be found in the Midlands, and that most of them are in Leicestershire and Northamptonshire, and are concerned with the manufacture of boots, hosiery, and ready-made clothing. The two typical towns are Leicester and Kettering. The latter, with its great coöperative store and its five thriving co-partnership businesses for the manufacture of boots, clothing, and corsets, and also for undertaking building contracts, will for some time be the worthy Mecca of the coöperative world.

What, then, is the secret of their success so far? Or is there no secret? Were the critics of the older productive movement altogether wrong, and did it simply need greater intelligence and perseverance on the part of the workmen to succeed? The answer is, I think, this: the older productive societies thought to find their market among the general public; the newer find 90 per cent. or more of their market within the coöperative world, *i. e.*, in the "distributive" stores. They have appealed, and not in vain, to the coöperative spirit, to coöperative "loyalty"; and had there been nothing else to commend them than their coöperative character, they would almost certainly have secured some trade, especially as they attempted to manufacture only staple articles for which there was a steady popular demand. But they have obtained a much greater trade than mere "loyalty" would have given them, owing to certain striking elements in their constitution. They have provided the distributive societies, which had larger sums of money (their members' savings) in their hands than they knew what to do with, with an attractive field of investment; and, having invested, mere self-interest will induce the distributive societies to buy as largely as they can in order to insure the payment of their interest. And not interest only. The newer productive societies are distinguished from the old by their more businesslike attitude, both towards capital and towards the consumer. The older societies aimed at putting together their own capital; if they were compelled to obtain capital from outside, they thought they offered enough when they promised a certain fixed interest. The new societies usually obtain a great deal of capital from outside; and, recognizing that capital needs something more than an "average interest" to induce it to run risks, they offer, over and above an interest of 5 per cent. (which is a good deal to begin with), a bonus on capital dependent on profits. And as to the consumer (who is usually in the first instance a distributive store), they allure him by the device which the universal store practice suggests, *i. e.*, by offering him a bonus on purchases. On the side of the productive society, it may be noticed, trade with coöperative stores has the two great further advantages, that it is pretty steady all the year round and that it produces no bad debts.

The conclusion, therefore, which is borne in upon the observer from every side, is the absolute dependence of the new productive movement on the existence of a very large ready-made market in the coöperative retail stores. This is so evident that I am surprised it has not impressed certain American spectators more forcibly than it seems to have done. To found on the example of England an exhortation to American workmen to set up coöperative shops *before* their market is ready, is, in my opinion, little short of criminal.

And the English movement itself will find itself face to face with grave difficulties as it grows out of its first stage of self-sacrificing ardor. Already, in most of the larger societies, the amount of capital contributed by the stores in the form of shares is much greater than that contributed by the workers. Thus, in the Leicester Hosiery Society, out of a share capital of some $150,000, only about $15,000 is owned by the workers, and three-fourths of the rest belong to retail societies. Probably the workman's "bonus on labor" is safe enough; but it is very doubtful whether the workers will long retain a preponderating voice in the election of committee and managers, if they provide the smaller part of the capital. And if they do not, there is nothing in the bonus or in the right of electing two or three committeemen to be outvoted on the board, to arouse any very keen interest on the part of the workmen. There are signs that the leaders are becoming aware of the dangers ahead. They are compelling the workers to become shareholders by withholding the bonus on wages until it reaches the amount requisite for a share; and they are paying off the individual shareholders who are not workers. But if they are to carry on business on a large scale, there seems no prospect that they will be able to dispense with the shareholding societies. They can neither provide an adequate cap-

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ital of their own, nor offend their best customers.

Moreover, the point is being neared at which productive societies will begin to compete among themselves. Hitherto the coöperative market has been so large that it could easily furnish trade both for the factories of the Wholesale and for all the independent societies set up in opposition to it. But already the travellers (or drummers) of the boot-making societies are bidding against one another. Mr. Maddison, the very able labor member of Parliament who is President of the Labor Association, does not seem to view the prospect with any alarm. In his reaction against the "centralizing" and "monopolizing" policy of the Wholesale, he uses language which sounds unusual in a coöperator, and would have perplexed both Owen and Maurice. He relies on "the free play of economic forces"; he regards "the horror of what is called competition" as "groundless"; and he would leave the number of productive societies to "natural selection." I am not here concerned with the criticism of either ideal—of either "centralization" or "decentralization." But it may be safely predicted that the increase of competing societies will add increasing cogency to the arguments of the adherents of the Wholesale, and, what is more to the point, tend to a fall in wages and a loss of bonus on the part of the workpeople.

As it is, the larger productive societies of the new type are by no means so sharply distinguishable from the Wholesale as the enthusiasts for labor co-partnership might lead one to suppose. They are in the main themselves federations of distributive societies. The Wholesale has but to give its employees a bonus on labor, however small, and a share in the management, however nominal, and it becomes a "labor co-partnership" society also. This being so, the time has come for the Labor Association, not to slacken in its propaganda, but to add to its assertion of the principle of labor co-partnership some more precise analysis of the nature and extent of that co-partnership in the societies already established. W. J. A.

ROMAN ROADS AND MILESTONES IN ASIA MINOR.

AMHERST, MASS., September, 1899.

A military Power such as Rome was could not long be content with the bridle-paths which all primitive peoples find sufficient to subserve their commercial interests. For, in order to facilitate the shifting and concentration of their armies at strategic points, they needed a better and more comfortable means of rapid transit than was furnished by the primitive bridle-path. The primary object which the Roman international roads were intended to subserve was military in character, and therefore they were known as *viæ militares*, though in the provinces we find *viæ consulares* and *viæ prætoriæ*, because they were built by proconsuls or proprætors respectively.

The width of the Roman road varied much according to its importance. Often it was one hundred and twenty feet wide, though in the provinces it was generally sixty, sometimes forty feet, wide. In order to understand the reason for this great width and for the substantial construction that was rigidly adhered to, we should bear in mind the make-up of the Roman army, whose comfort and necessities were continually consulted. In the first place, the Roman soldier was burdened by his heavy armor and other impedimenta in such a manner as to render him wholly unfit (*impeditus*) to repel sudden attack successfully, as we read on nearly every page of Cæsar's Commentaries. The baggage-train was far larger and more unwieldy than anything we know of to-day, for the reason that this train had to transport not merely the tents, artillery, arms, munitions of war, army chest, and a host of other things necessary in the warfare of that day; not merely the effects and plunder of the legionaries, but also those of two secondary armies—an army of women, wives of the legionaries and camp-following prostitutes, and another army of body-servants, for each legionary had one or more servants, so that the *calones* outnumbered the legionaries themselves. When on the march, this unwieldy army maintained the line-of-battle order, theoretically at least, in order to be ready to repel sudden and unexpected attack. Good roads, therefore, were necessary in order to enable the immense train with which the army was handicapped to keep pace with the legionaries, and wide roads were essential, in order, in case of sudden attack, to allow the individual legionaries to make effective use of their arms without interfering with their neighbors.

The Roman roads were built with more care than is expended upon the beds of our railways even. They were made as straight as possible, and natural obstacles were skilfully overcome by the use of cuts, fills, bridges, culverts, embankments, and even tunnels. Stiff grades were avoided, and a level, once reached, was doggedly maintained, even at the expense of making cuts, fills, etc. The work preliminary to the building of any Roman road consisted in excavating all the dirt down to hardpan, and the excavation thus made was filled in, regardless of expense, with layers of sand, stone, and cement, until the requisite level, however high it might be, had been reached. Finally, the surface was dressed with a layer of metal and cement. The road was practically indestructible, and required only occasional repairs. That continuous or even merely yearly repairs were not necessary seems clear from the fact that, when repairs were made, the proprætor of the province thought it so important an event that he celebrated it by inscribing the fact along with his name on the milestones.

Many years ago Bergier made an examination of certain Roman roads still in use in France. One road was examined at a point where it had been raised twenty feet above the level of the surrounding country, and a vertical section revealed a structure of five layers. First came the great fill of sixteen feet and one-half; on the top of this fill came, first, a foot layer of flattish stones mixed with cement, then a foot layer of flattish stones without cement, then a foot layer of firmly packed dirt, then a half-foot layer of small metal in hard cement, and lastly, a half-foot layer of large metal and cement. Other roads investigated by Bergier, while differing in treatment, were just as substantial roads. Paved roads were rare, but the Via Appia offers a remarkable instance of a paved road. The stone used in its pavement is of the kind of which millstones are made, and they are so carefully dressed and adjusted that the road often seems to be solid rock, and has proved so indestructible that, after two thousand years of continuous use, it is still a superb road. In the countless inscriptions which state that such and such a governor under such and such an emperor repaired the roads and bridges in his province, reference is made to the top-dressing of metal and cement. The military road of the provinces was usually sixty feet wide, and was divided into three tracks: a raised centre and two side tracks, each track being twenty feet wide.

If the old Roman roads in Italy, France, and elsewhere are still existent and in use, there is an especial reason therefor, quite apart from the fact that these roads were originally built for eternity. In the days of Rome's ascendency all roads led to Rome, and in Europe this has never ceased to be more or less a fact. No city of Europe ever attained such transcendent importance as to make necessary a complete change in the general direction of the road system; so that, in spite of the decline of Rome and the rise of other centres, the roads of Europe still lead to Rome.

In Asia Minor the case was different. Before written history opens, the great emporium of Asia Minor was Pteria, the capital city of the great Asiatic peninsula. The prehistoric system of roads led to Pteria; one great artery was the road from Pteria (or later on, Tavium) to Ephesus on the seaboard; a second was the road from Pteria-Tavium through the Cilician Gates to the southern seaboard, etc. Later on, when the Persians gained control over Asia Minor, Pteria had ceased to exist, but its neighboring Tavium rose in importance and became the emporium of all central Asia Minor. Roads led to Tavium. The first artificial trade roads (leaving out of consideration the mythical roads of Semiramis) were, therefore, built by the predecessors of the Persians in Asia Minor. The first road mentioned in written history was the Royal Road which led from Ephesus to Susa. Now this Royal Road was nothing in the world but the old Hittite road (or roads) along whose immense zigzag the Persians were content to jog for centuries, never dreaming, apparently, of a short cut. If the Persians had built the road themselves, they would never have been guilty of the incomprehensible folly of making the great détour from the Cilician Gates via Tavium to Ephesus, instead of following the direct and natural trade route from the Cilician Gates via Iconium, Antiochia, Celænæ, and the Lycus valley to Ephesus. The Greek kings and their successors, the Romans, adopted this natural shortcut, and the Royal Road lapsed into desuetude. Then all roads led to Ephesus, because Ephesus was the gateway to Rome. Later on, Constantinople arose and disputed the queenship with Rome. Her rise demanded a thoroughgoing change in the general direction of all roads in Asia Minor. Roads no longer led to Rome—that is, to Ephesus—but to Constantinople. The Roman road system in Asia became useless for purposes of trade, and was degraded first to neighborhood roads; and as for fifteen hundred years the roads have continued to lead to Constantinople, the good old Roman roads were finally abandoned, lost, and forgotten. Occasionally the traveller can locate a sec-

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tion of a Roman road (though their course must generally be argued from the milestones, as will appear presently). One such at Kiakhta in distant Kommagene is now a silent but eloquent reminder of Rome's solicitude for even her most distant provinces; every stone of the magnificent old bridge on this road tells a pathetic story of the passing of human grandeur.

For Italia, distances were measured from the *milliarium aureum* in Rome; from Milan for Gallia Cisalpina; from Lyons and Rheims for Gallia Celtica and Belgica respectively, etc. So, in Asia, distances were measured from the provincial centres, from Tavium for Cappadocia; from Melitene for Armenia; from Palmyra for Palmyrene, etc.

Tavium, in northwestern Cappadocia, was, as we have seen, a city of importance at the very beginning of history, and continued to be a centre of commerce down possibly to early Byzantine times. The celebrated rock-sculptures of the neighboring Boghazkieni (Pteria) and Eyuk prove that Tavium was inhabited by the people nowadays called the Hittites, who have left enduring memorials of their high civilization in the rock sculptures found throughout Asia Minor and northern Syria. After the fall of the Hittite empire, Tavium continued to flourish under the Persians, and was an important station on the Royal Road, over which the earliest recorded postal service travelled. It was the centre of the Roman road system for the whole of northwestern Cappadocia, Pontus, and Galatia, being the point from which radiated no less than seven Roman roads. Consequently, it is a matter of the highest importance for ancient geography that the site of Tavium be located with absolute certainty. An elaborate postal service was kept up throughout the Roman empire; several precious lists of postal stations have come down to us (*e. g.*, the Antonine itinerary, among others). These lists give not only the names of the postal stations, but also the distance from station to station in Roman miles, beginning with a certain city as the point from which distances were measured for the whole surrounding country for at least two hundred miles. Just as at Rome the *milliarium aureum* was the official spot from which distances were measured, so central milliaria were erected in Asia Minor in the cities from which distances were measured along the roads of a given province. Many of these starting-points are given in the Itineraries, or in the Peutinger Table—an ancient map that chance has preserved; but many of the starting-points are not given, and therefore it behooves the travelling archæologist to hunt up the Roman milestones that may have survived to the present day, in order to read from them the story they have to tell in regard to the Roman road system.

If the starting-point be once fixed, then the location of the cities or postal stations between, say, Tavium and Ancyra is a comparatively easy matter, that requires only patient investigation of the region of country on the line of march between Tavium and Ancyra. Thus, at a distance of, let us say, twenty Roman miles, as one travels west from Tavium, the traveller knows that he must find the ruins of a town or postal station, and so he scours the country until he finds the object of his search. In many cases the stations were so insignificant that no remains of them will have been spared to the present day, especially if they were mere temporary quarters, consisting of buildings for the care of relays of horses and the entertainment of the officials in charge. It matters little if the traveller find no traces of these insignificant intermediate stations, provided the mileage between two fixed points, such as Tavium and Ancyra, be ascertained to be beyond all doubt. In that case it is only necessary for the traveller to measure off the distances of the Itinerary, and he has the whole line fixed with a very near approach to certainty. However, if he succeeds in finding one or more of the intervening stations, that fact will strengthen his case materially. Now, from the time when geographers first began to make maps of Asia Minor, they have sorely needed a certain identification of the site of Tavium, and in 1884 it fell to my lot to discover the first milestone on the Roman road between Tavium and Ancyra. This milestone, therefore, locates Tavium definitely, and enables the geographer to fill in with comparative ease the map of the country reaching west to Ancyra, and east to Cæsarea, Sebastia, Amisus, Amasia, etc. Afterwards I found the hundredth milestone on the same line, a fact which proved that I was following along the Roman road. In default of this direct epigraphical evidence, a clear case of the corruption of the ancient name by the Turks is a most safe way of identification. For instance, after leaving Tavium I travelled northward, following the line of the ancient Roman road as laid down in the Peutinger Table, and at Tamba Hassan I found several badly defaced Roman milestones, a fact which proved that I was locating the road correctly. Now the Peutinger Table gives Tamba as the first station on this road at a distance of thirteen Roman miles from Tavium, and it takes very little acumen to discover the Tamba of the Peutinger Table in the Turkish Tamba Hassan.

Milestones were erected along the entire line of the Roman military roads. I can speak from personal observation only of those of Asia Minor and Syria. In shape they are a conical column, round in horizontal section, and monolithic. They vary from seven to nine feet in height, with a diameter at the base of from two and a half to four feet, but tapering off to a foot and a half at the bluntly rounded top. They are merely rough-dressed. The majority of them bear inscriptions, which are usually in Latin, but sometimes in Greek, sometimes in both Latin and Greek, while sometimes the distance alone is given in both Latin and Greek. The distance is usually unaccompanied by a statement as to the place from which the distance was measured, though sometimes both the starting-point and the objective point are given. The inscriptions on these milestones give not only the name of the Emperor during whose reign the road was constructed or repaired, but, what is of great importance for the history of the region, also the name of the Roman Governor during whose term of office the road was constructed or repaired. I found in all about one hundred inscribed milestones, many of which were inscribed two and even three times. When the Roman road was originally built, milestones, bearing inscriptions dated by the name of the then reigning Emperor and that of the proprætor who constructed the road, were erected at every mile. Now in the course of time the road needed repairs. A new Emperor was wearing the purple in Rome, a new Governor, who cared naught for the works and the honor of his predecessors, was lording it in the province. This new Governor was forced to repair the roads and bridges in his province, but instead of going to the expense of erecting new milestones bearing inscriptions announcing his work, he simply had his inscriptions cut on the old stone and directly over the old inscription without having first erased it. Of course while the marks of the chisel were fresh and unweathered the new inscription might be read with comparative ease; but as soon as time and weather had dimmed the freshness of the more recent inscription, then it became a matter of science to decipher the twain. It sometimes happened that a third inscription was cut over the already existing two. I found several such, and my despair when brought face to face with such a stone may be imagined. However, the decipherment proved to be merely a matter of persevering study and painstaking combination of details. Most of these milestones were found in Cataonia, the region east of the Anti-Taurus range of mountains. At the time, I was travelling eastward towards the Euphrates from Comana (the Golden), once the seat of the worship of the great Asiatic goddess of fecundity (here known as *Ma*), in whose temple no less than six thousand slaves (mostly women) were kept; whose chief priest was next in rank to the King of Cappadocia. Judging, then, from the importance of Comana, one might naturally suppose that it was the starting-point of the system of Roman roads for the trans-Anti-Tauran region. But about two hours east of Comana I found the 144th milestone. This, then, was proof positive that Comana was not the starting-point. As I continued to journey eastward and to discover new milestones, I found that the numerals on the stones steadily decreased, until finally it became certain that Melitene (now Malatia), not far from the Euphrates, was the starting-point of which I was in quest.

After my explorations in Cataonia (or Armenia Minor), where I came daily into contact with the Roman milestone, I joined the Wolfe expedition to Assyria and Babylonia. On the home journey from Babylon and Baghdad, we crossed the Syrian desert. About one day's journey east of Palmyra, and while still in the desert, my eyes suddenly fell upon a large stone lying by the roadside. It was a Roman milestone, but uninscribed. However, it served to put me on the alert. Further on another, and still another uninscribed milestone was found, until finally I had the satisfaction of finding an inscribed stone, the eighth on the Roman road from Palmyra to Aracha, showing that distance was reckoned from Palmyra. It is well known that people, manners, customs, and names of places change very slowly in the conservative East—nay, the life of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob may be seen throughout the Mesopotamia and Chaldea of to-day; and many of the cities whose names were familiar to the patriarchs of the Bible still bear their Biblical names. Of this intense stability both of the names on this eighth milestone are interesting examples. Palmyra is but the Latin translation of the Semitic Tedmur, the place of the palms, and its name is still Tedmur, and nothing but Tedmur, throughout the Orient of to-day.

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Aracha, the other name mentioned in the inscription on this milestone, is the Latinized form of the Semitic name Erek, and this Erek is still existent, and still bears the name Erek. It is the first station as one journeys east from Palmyra.

Leaving this eighth milestone, we journeyed on towards Palmyra, finding nearly all of the remaining seven milestones, some of them being still in position. West of Palmyra we found the Roman road leading from Palmyra to Hama, and followed it for about five miles, finding inscribed stones, all still erect and in position. If we did not know the exact length of the Roman mile from other sources, it might be measured from the stones of this road. I say *road*, but it is no longer a road. We were travelling over the desert without any road, being guided by native Palmyrenes who knew where the water puddles were to be found in the spring of the year. We stumbled by the merest accident upon a milestone, and shortly afterward another one was descried in the distance. Thus we got the direction of the road and followed it for a few miles—as long, indeed, as prudence would allow; and we turned away from the road and the milestones in silence and in sorrow. Some future traveller who has the courage and the means to venture over the trackless waste between Palmyra and Hama will reap a rich epigraphical harvest.

There is something awe-inspiring about these hoary guardians of the Roman road, simple and rough-hewn though they be. Like the Roman sentinel of old, they are still true to their trust, eloquent and stately reminders of the mighty deeds of mighty Rome. Fourteen, fifteen hundred years have swept over them; they have witnessed the prolonged death-struggle of the imperial city of the seven hills; they have seen empires, nations arise and grow wanton in the pride of strength, only to return to the nothingness from which they sprang, but *they* still stand proudly erect, simple, austere, sublime, in the silence and the solitude of the desert, bidding defiance to time and to *man*.

J. R. S. Sterrett.

Correspondence.

HISTORY FALSIFIED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Senator Lindsay's address before the American Bar Association, which was at once telegraphed over the country, must be taken as a political outgiving of rather more than ordinary interest. It is, therefore, legitimate to call attention to a few of its curiously unwarrantable assumptions.

His declaration that President Jefferson was overruled by Congress as to the power to erect States out of the Louisiana Territory, is only one of many errors. Instantly upon this acquisition, to wit, on October 17, 1803, he summoned Congress in extra session to "take those ulterior measures necessary for the immediate occupation and temporary government, and for *its incorporation into our Union*." Not only were Mr. Jefferson's belief and purpose plain in this, but the Ordinance of 1787, for erecting the Northwest Territory into future States, was upon his plan drafted three years earlier. In public and private, Mr. Jefferson urged that all contiguous territory that should be "settled by our own people," as he expressed it, ought to belong to our family of States. "What harm," said he—"what harm can come of merely extending the Federal principle?" And because this was not provided for in the organic law, he proposed that another article should be added to the Constitution.

And as if this treatment of our early history were not specious and misleading enough, Senator Lindsay uses recent events with fine scorn of the real facts. Of the Filipino insurrection he says: "It was an attempt to utilize the victories the United States had won in the war with Spain for the accomplishment of an end to which they [the insurrectionists] were in no wise committed." Not "committed" to a cause "for which they had been struggling against Spain for countless generations," as the Senator had declared in almost the same breath? And had the Filipinos done nothing? Let Lieutenant Calkins, in his historical article in *Harper's Monthly* for August, answer. After showing that they covered and held the whole outside region to the very gates of Manila, controlled the entire country and its resources, even to the water supply and works, effectually beleaguering the city, he says: "In none of these operations had the Americans borne any part." Indeed, if one will read the article above referred to, he will be convinced that Senator Lindsay, like many other swift witnesses, has made a political speech rather than a statesmanlike presentation of a great question so vital to the interests of the country.—Very truly,

Enoch Knight.

Los Angeles, Cal., September 2, 1899.

AMERICANS AND GERMANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am much pleased with the characteristically sensible and temperate tone of the review, in the last issue of the *Nation*, of Prof. Münsterberg's article in the September number of the *Atlantic*, entitled "The Germans and the Americans." I read the article carefully as soon as it appeared, and it seemed to me also that his assertions are altogether too sweeping, and that the reasoning is fallacious in that it assumes that what is true of some is true of all. Prof. Münsterberg certainly does not bring forward any unassailable reason why there should be a larger amount of dislike, of "a kind of antipathy, a half-ethical, half-æsthetic aversion," between the Americans and the Germans than between any other two nations. He states that it would be superficial and wrong to deny the existence of this feeling. I am, then, radically superficial and wrong, for I do not believe that such a feeling exists *naturally* between the great body of the American people and their German brothers, and I claim with even greater faith than the psychologist that the German immigrants become a respectable and very desirable element of the American population; they are industrious, thrifty, skilful, and, above all, honest, and, more than that, they are quick to assimilate Americanism. I am, however, ready to admit that the "energetic" policy and the unwise speeches of the German Emperor have a tendency to stir up ill feeling, but this is unimportant, for Prof. Münsterberg, using rather strong language, says that the American clings to the belief that the "Emperor is a crank." He goes on to say later (by way of compliment to the Emperor, I suppose) that "the one living American whose personality most closely resembles that of the Emperor William is the brilliant young Governor of New York," and expresses the belief that, if Germany were to become a republic, the people "would elect the present Emperor with enthusiasm as the first President"; but how about the Diet and the canal bills?

Now, the evident purpose of Prof. Münsterberg's article is very praiseworthy, namely, to assist the two nations "to understand each other and to feel the inner accord of their real natures, or at least to overcome hostile prejudices." But can this purpose be accomplished by trying to make the two nations believe that they dislike each other?

As the distinguished psychologist talked "shop" a little at the beginning of his essay, I may perhaps be permitted, in closing, to add a bit of philology. In your reference to Cicero's observation that the same word meant stranger and enemy, I assume you had in mind the Latin *hostis*. In German and English, however, the root of this word is represented by *gast* and *guest* respectively, and in this connection it is worthy of notice, as Kluge points out, in how many ways Teutons and Romans have transformed the idea underlying the old inherited word for "stranger": the Roman regards him as an enemy; among the Teutons he enjoys the greatest privileges.

Charles Bundy Wilson.

The University of Iowa, September 2, 1899.

THE POOR WHITE AND THE NEGRO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The negro problem of the South is less one of race and color than of social and economic conditions. Before the civil war, the South had two distinct classes of whites, the slave-owning aristocracy and the "poor whites." For the latter the war was a social and economic revolution as well as for the negro, although the white man did not realize it at the time. Before the war, the "poor white" was most wretchedly situated. In almost every kind of common labor he came into competition with slaves, and his wages consequently were little or no higher than the cost of maintenance of slave labor. In this competition the slave got decidedly the better of it, as his position was assured and he was protected by his master, while the "poor white" had to shift for himself. Under these circumstances it was only natural that the "poor whites" should hate the negroes and the blacks despise the "poor white trash." And yet one never heard of a public lynching in the time of slavery, and negroes were rarely attacked by mobs of whites. The reason is obvious: the slave-owners controlled the Southern commonwealths, and they were fully able to protect their property. A slave was valuable property, and the "poor white" that injured one always suffered for it.

The great conflict between the North and the South changed all this. The ultimate cause of the war may be attributed to the economic conflict between the free labor

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of the North and the slave labor of the South. But the economic upheaval brought the greatest benefit of all to the "poor white" of the South. He, far more than the negro, was made a free man. The old slave-owning aristocracy was overthrown, and the "poor whites" gained the ascendency. This was a blessing to the "poor white," but not to the negro. No longer is the negro valuable property, nor has he his old master to protect him. His former rival, upon whom he had looked with contempt, is now his political master. That the negro is the sufferer by the present state of affairs in the South is proved by the frequent lynchings. Negroes are shot, hanged, or burned, not only for assaults upon white women, but for every serious offence against the whites. And in justice to the negro it must be said that it is only the vicious few, when inflamed by alcohol or passion, who commit the crime of rape; and, moreover, this crime is the occasion of but a relatively small proportion of the lynchings. On the other hand, among the whites it is the lawless few who do the lynching, generally in opposition to public sentiment.

The competition between the "poor whites" and the negroes still obtains in but a slightly modified form, and the whites and blacks are continually clashing in the labor market. This economic conflict makes the "negro problem." The occasional spasmodic attempts of the negro to enter politics are only incidental to the problem. The "poor white" has not completely outgrown the effects of the institution of slavery, and is often shiftless and lazy; but he is vastly more alert and aggressive, as well as more intelligent, than the negro, and whenever the two races clash, the negro is invariably worsted. Fortunately for the negro, certain lines of work are by custom reserved for him, such as domestic labor and work in the cotton-fields. But the moment the negro leaves the beaten path and enters new fields, he comes into competition with white labor. This competition between the two races would do little harm if it did not occasionally lead to crime and bloodshed. The great problem for the South to solve is, how to prevent this resort to force.

There need be no question that the South will solve the question satisfactorily and fairly, without any assistance from the outside. The negro's best friend has always been his old master, who has ever shown him true kindness and sympathy. The "poor white," as a type, is gradually disappearing. Living under improved economic and social conditions, he is being better educated, and, with the possession of political power and a growing sense of responsibility, he is slowly becoming more conservative. Furthermore, he is beginning to realize that capital and immigration, and resulting prosperity, do not come to communities where lawlessness is permitted. With a better and more efficient organization of the forces of law and order, backed by a strong public sentiment, the Southern commonwealths will surely be able to repress the criminal tendencies of negroes and restrain the lawlessness of whites. Then the economic struggle will follow natural laws and be decided on its merits.

But what will become of the negro? The negroes in the South are not increasing relatively so fast as the whites. The relative number of births is greater, but, by reason of ignorance and neglect, the relative number of deaths is greater still. And when the flood of immigration sets Southward, the negro will form an ever-decreasing proportion of the population. Will the negro, then, disappear before the superior race as the Indian has done? He will certainly disappear as a race, but probably by a slow process of absorption. He is too submissive and too imitative to meet the fate of the Indian. The laws against miscegenation in the Southern States prevent intermarriages, but they are powerless to prevent a gradual increase in the number of mulattoes of illegitimate birth. The process of absorption is slow but unceasing, and it inevitably follows that in due course of time there will not be a full-blooded negro in North America.

Statistics show that the negroes are drifting towards the Gulf and South Atlantic coasts. It is, therefore, probable that this region will in the end have the largest proportion of population of mixed blood; and, as one moves Northward, the proportion will grow less and less. The mulatto is generally well-proportioned and intelligent. He is said to be more vicious than the black. If true, this may be due to the circumstances of his birth and his unfortunate station in life. At any rate, the mulatto is better able to withstand heat and malaria than the white man, and would therefore be better fitted to survive in certain unhealthful regions in the South. And, finally, it is reasonable to believe that, under natural conditions, the mulatto would become a useful citizen and a credit to his country. H.

[We print this interesting view without comment further than remarking that, in our opinion, confirmed by that of recent good (even Southern) observers, the condition of the "poor whites," economically and spiritually, is more to be commiserated than that of the freedmen.—Ed. Nation.]

HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of August 10 I offered some comments upon certain problems in secondary education. That communication was suggested by the recent Report on Historical Teaching, but dealt with it only as symptomatic of general tendencies and conditions. I contended that secondary schoolmen must solve problems of secondary education, since there was hopeless contradiction among college specialists; that college men put an undue pressure on the secondary school; that the recommendations of specialists in their various fields of study were highly partisan in nature. There was but one feature of the Report dealt with directly and individually; this was its wholesale condemnation of the single-year course in general history.

In your issue of August 24 Dr. McLaughlin, chairman of the Committee of Seven, criticises that communication as if it were directed in some special way at the work of his committee. I venture to ask the courtesy of your columns for a single rejoinder, confining myself to those matters which bear specifically upon the Report.

The statement that the "historians insisted upon a four-years' course" was made in running comment upon a more general matter and as illustration of a general condition. The argument was in no way affected by the exact truth or error of that statement, which may, however, be justified. The Report does not, it is true, specifically "insist" upon a four-years' course. Its leading statement is: "As a thorough and systematic course of study, we recommend four years of work." Dr. McLaughlin writes, with evident approval, "A good many schools now give four years to history." When it is reflected that all these committee reports are to be regarded as diplomatic notes and interpreted by known tendencies and the unofficial statements of the powers, there seems to be a substantial truth in the phrase referred to. The writer heard the chairman of this committee say quite plainly, at an historical conference where the Report was under consideration, that the Committee demanded a four-years' course as its just due. The matter can be easily tested in another way. If a school principal should report to the Committee that he had organized a course with one daily recitation in history throughout the whole four years, what would their comment be? It is inconceivable that they would say: Too much time is given to history in this course when proper consideration is given to all the topics which must have place in the secondary curriculum.—This, nevertheless, is the only just opinion that can be passed upon such a high-school or academy course. Frederick Whitton.

Michigan Military Academy,
September 5, 1899.

COLD SHOULDER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Which do you consider the correct expression: *turn the cold shoulder*, or *give the cold shoulder*? I have always considered the latter to be such, believing it to be based on giving a cold shoulder of mutton to an unwelcome guest. Gasc, generally thorough and exact, says *give*. There are higher authorities, of course, but not at hand. F. B.

Cambridge, September 6, 1899.

[*Cold shoulder* the Oxford Dictionary asserts to be now used "chiefly in the phrase *to show the cold shoulder*," but also *to give*, etc. Scott introduced it ("I must tip him the cold shoulder") in 'The Antiquary,' 1816, and explained the phrase in the glossary by 'to appear cold and reserved.' Dr. Murray adds: "A 'cold shoulder of mutton' as a dish has suggested many puns and allusive uses."—Ed. Nation.]

THE SOUND OF I.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should like to have my mind set at rest by you, or the member of your staff who deals with such things, as to the proper pronunciation of the letter *i* in the English language.

For the last forty years or more the tendency has been strongly towards giving it the sound of *ee* in *heed*. This has gone so far that I think very often Americans pronounce the name of that vigorous General who established the English empire in India "Cleeve" instead of Clive—in the very face of Sir William Jones:

"'Tis not of Jaffier nor of Clive
On Plassey's glorious field I sing,
But of the best good girl alive,
Which most will deem a prettier thing."

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I think the fashion is weakening, but I still hear "Palesteen" and "Philisteen" and "Madeleen" and "Adeleen." I feel inclined often to correct my younger friends (I am nearly eighty, and my acquaintance with the best books of English literature covers a period of about seventy years). I feel tempted to address our American kings and queens as John Kemble once did George IV.: "Oblige would suit your royal mouth better"—"Palestine would suit your royal mouths better." The Frenchifying of English pronunciation has gone so far that some fairly well educated people pronounce "Oude" "Ood."

I give a short catena of instances from English literature between 1800 and 1850:

"Yes, valorous chiefs, while yet your sabres shine,
The native guard of feeble Palestine."
—*Heber*, 1803.

"No tranced summer calm is thine,
Ever varying Madeline."

"Faintly smiling Adeline,
Scarce of earth nor all divine."
—*Tennyson*, 1830-42.

The list I am sure could be extended.

W.

Mount Savage, Md., September 6, 1899.

Notes.

Truslove, Hanson & Comba have nearly ready 'Embroidery, or the Craft of the Needle,' by W. G. Paulson Townsend and Louisa F. Pesel, with 70 illustrations; an 'Illustrated History of Furniture,' by Frederick Litchfield, and the same author's guide to collectors, 'Pottery and Porcelain'; 'The Bibelots,' six volumes of reprints for the book-lover, edited by J. Potter Briscoe, beginning with Coleridge's 'Table-Talk'; 'Saunterings in Bookland,' edited by Joseph Shaylor; and an *édition de luxe* of Hans Christian Andersen's 'Fairy Tales.'

The late Rev. Dr. Alexander Balmain Bruce's 'The Moral Order of the World' will be published next month by Charles Scribner's Sons. Shortly forthcoming also are 'The Powers at Play,' short stories by Bliss Perry; 'Dionysius, the Weaver's Heart's Dearest,' by Blanche Willis Howard; 'On Trial,' by Zack; 'The Yarn of the Bucko Mate,' by Herbert E. Hamblen; 'Searchlight Letters,' by Judge Grant; and the second volume of Max Müller's reminiscences, 'Auld Lang Syne' (in India).

The New Amsterdam Book Co. have in press a new edition of Frank Smedley's novels, with impressions of Cruikshank and Phiz's illustrations from the original plates; Gilbert à Beckett's Comic Histories of England and Rome, with John Leech's illustrations (a part in color); Admiral Beresford's 'Life of Nelson'; and 'Nights with an Old Gunner,' by C. J. Cornish.

Street & Smith's new list embraces a 'Life of Admiral Dewey,' by Will M. Clemens; 'Cuba—Porto Rico' and 'Hawaii—Philippines,' by A. D. Hall; 'The Vampire, and Other Poems,' by Rudyard Kipling; 'The Awakening,' by Count Tolstoy.

James T. White & Co. announce 'Our Three Admirals: Farragut, Porter, and Dewey,' by James E. Homans.

Hardy, Pratt & Co., Boston, will issue directly 'The Personal Opinions of Honoré de Balzac,' taken from his correspondence and miscellaneous writings, and preceded by Brunetière's centenary address at Tours on May 6; the whole translated by Miss Katharine Prescott Wormeley.

Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, will continue their Beacon Biographies with lives of Hawthorne, by Mrs. James T. Fields; Thomas Paine, by Ellery Sedgwick; John Brown, by Joseph Edgar Chamberlain; Aaron Burr, by Henry Childs Merwin; and Frederick Douglass, by Charles W. Chesnutt. Further announcements are: 'The Territorial Acquisitions of the United States,' by Edward W. Bicknell; 'The Future of the American Negro,' by Booker T. Washington; 'Their Shadows Before,' a tale of Nat Turner's insurrection; 'Mr. Dooley: In the Hearts of His Countrymen'; selections from the Letters of Thomas Gray, edited by Henry Milnor Rideout; 'Things as They Are,' social essays by Bolton Hall; 'Little Beasts of Field and Wood,' by William Everett Cram; 'An Alphabet of Celebrities,' pictures and verse by Oliver Herford; 'In Case of Need,' by Ralph Bergengren; new volumes of verse by Richard Hovey ('Taliesin'), Prof. Richard Burton ('Lyrics of Brotherhood'), and John B. Tabb ('Child Verse, Grave and Gay'), and a fresh translation of Hérédia's 'Trophies,' by the Rev. Frank Sewall.

George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia, announce 'The British Isles through an Opera-glass,' by Charles M. Taylor, jr., with 48 full-page illustrations; 'Martial Graves of our Fallen Heroes in Santiago de Cuba,' by Henry C. McCook, D.D.; and 'A Group of Old Authors,' by Clyde B. Furst.

The season opens, as usual, with a fresh crop of reprints and new editions. Beginning with the handier forms, we mention the four volumes denominated "Stories of Great Authors," consisting of a selection from the biographical essays which precede the several specimens in Charles Dudley Warner's "Library of the World's Best Literature." Thus, volume i., Philosophers and Scientists, opens with Prof. E. Ray Lankester's Darwin, and closes at its two hundredth page with Prof. Paul Shorey's Plato; Bacon, Newman, Aristotle, and Spencer coming between. Prof. Charles Eliot Norton sums up Dante in volume iii., Poets; Leslie Stephen does the same for Carlyle in volume iv., Historians; while Henry James, jr., on Hawthorne, and William C. Brownell, on Thackeray, lend distinction to volume ii. Not all the essays are up to the level here indicated. The publishers are Doubleday & McClure Co.; the typography is not elegant, but the binding is in simple good taste.

The same firm revert to a better style in the fourth series of their "Little Masterpieces," edited by the new conductor of the *Atlantic Monthly*. These three pretty volumes, each with its portrait, give us snatches of Thackeray (including a ballad or two), of De Quincey, and of Lamb (his verses, also).

Next come the dainty "Temple Classics" of Dent-Macmillan, with the 1538 edition of Elizabeth Carter's version of Epictetus's Moral Discourses, in two volumes, embodying the translator's high apology for literal uncouthness—"for else, taking greater liberties would have spared me no small pains;" two volumes of Herrick's Hesperides (1648); Basil Montagu's Thoughts of Divines and Philosophers' (1832); Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey' (1768); George Cavendish's 'Life and Death of Thomas Wolsey' (after the MS. edited by Singer in 1815, 1827); and Wordsworth's Sonnets, the first complete since the poet's own extraction of them for separate publication in 1838. This last we must, on the whole, consider the gem of the present instalment of the Classics.

The late George William Curtis's 'Prue and I' antedates but a year or so William Allen Butler's 'Nothing to Wear,' and Harper & Bros. have now brought out both in handsome style—Mr. Curtis's fantasy with a portrait and three delicate illustrations; Mr. Butler's whole body of poetry, also with a portrait of the author, who still survives to note in the dedication his golden-wedding anniversary.

A second edition of Prof. E. R. A. Seligman's work on 'The Shifting and Incidence of Taxation' appears from the press of the Macmillan Company. So much has been added, and the revision has been so complete, that scarcely a single page, the author tells us, will be found the same as in the first edition. The substance of the work, however, remains the same, and it is too well known to require extended notice. The recent changes in the laws of New York, which recognize the principle of taxing the "unearned increment" in the case of one class of corporations, may produce such a shifting of taxation as will give especial timeliness to the appearance of this volume.

Little, Brown & Co. publish a useful manual entitled 'The War-Revenue Act of 1898 Explained,' by John M. Gould and Edward H. Savary. Besides the text of the act, the interpretations and decisions which every section has received or occasioned are given, as well as the decisions of the English courts on similar provisions of their stamp acts. An appendix contains a paper on the law in its relations to conveyancing, prepared by the Abstract Club of Boston.

'Pauperizing the Rich' is the title chosen by Mr. Alfred J. Ferris for an essay in the field of social reconstruction (Philadelphia: T. S. Leach & Co.). Mr. Ferris writes better than many reformers, but his style is too allegorical to enable us to understand his system very clearly. He proposes to abolish "the tremendous extremes of dire need and excessive wealth" by restoring to the people the "property in ideas" of which they are now robbed. By a computation which we do not follow, he figures that every man's income is to be equal to one-half of his present income, plus one-half the average income. To attain this result, the general Government is to impose taxes to the extent of ten and a half billions of dollars. The book is not without interest as showing the influence of the doctrine of rent when pressed to the extreme that it has been by some of our professors of economics.

Should the record in the Dreyfus trial fail to satisfy those who revel in *causes célèbres*, they may take up 'Criminal Appeal and the Maybrick Case,' by J. H. Levy (London: P. S. King & Son). Over 400 pages are given up to a verbatim report of the proceedings in this case; the remainder of the volume, some 200 pages, being largely occupied with protests and petitions and other attempts to convince the public that there was a miscarriage of justice. We shall not pass on that question, and content ourselves with remarking that, on the whole, justice seems to be better administered in England, where no appeal is allowed, than in this country, where there are three or four. The Home Office, it is to be

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remembered, acts as a Court of Appeal, and its intervention is, in the opinion of competent observers, a sufficient safeguard to the innocent.

A very elaborate manual, entitled 'American Investments Classified,' has been compiled and published by Mr. Curtis G. Harraman of New York. The peculiar feature of it is its lists not only of investments, but also of investors, which show the ownership of Government, municipal, and other bonds held by all sorts of financial institutions. The labor of making such a compilation is very great, and its value to investors corresponds. Another volume is to follow.

We cannot speak very highly of Mrs. Clement's 'Saints in Art' (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), though it doubtless contains some information useful to the young person engaged in the study of art. The illustrations are fairly well executed, but, both in the choice of them and in the text, a deplorable preference for second-rate work is shown.

All the more important questions of secondary education have been so thoroughly discussed in this country that it is useless to encumber the subject with material from abroad which has no especial bearing upon any of its phases in the United States. Still, there are certain difficulties almost identical the civilized world over, and on these it pays to compare notes. One of these, the adjustment between the traditional ideal (classical) education and the exigencies of modern life, has been made the subject of earnest study by the French Society for the Study of Questions of Secondary Education; whose reports to the Parliamentary committee on education have been collected under the title, 'L'Enquête sur l'Enseignement Secondaire' (Paris: Belin Frères). The fourth and fifth of these reports, 'L'Enseignement Classique' and 'L'Enseignement Moderne,' deal with the subject in a manner sufficiently broad to deserve being brought to the notice of American educators. The classical men will be more favorably impressed with the arguments presented than will the representatives of the sciences and the modern languages, but it should not be forgotten that the French are essentially a Latin race, and as such may be expected to cling to the classical tradition more tenaciously than other nations.

Those who are interested in the works of Theocritus will find in Legrand's 'Étude sur Théocrite' (Paris: Fontemoing) an extended treatment of that poet and his idylls that is really worth reading. In a book of 442 pages divided into five chapters, one finds a quite thorough discussion of all Theocritean questions. In a chapter on the authenticity of the poems, M. Legrand endeavors to determine which are the real work of Theocritus, while in chapter ii. he discusses the poet, his life, residence, and relations with other poets like Kallimachus and Apollonius. Many points embraced in these two chapters are, of course, not subject to absolute proof, and so the author's conclusions, while of interest, can hardly be called definitive. Chapter iii., headed "L'Invention des Motifs," is a handling of such themes as Theocritus's learning, his pathos of love, his picturing of city and country life, his character-drawing, his art in story-telling, natural description, etc. Seventy pages are then given to the poet's dialect, diction, grammar, versification, and style, while a final chapter deals with the structure of the idylls separately. The author appears to have made use of all or nearly all the literature of his subject. It is, perhaps, as "un livre de récapitulation" that the work especially deserves notice.

The extent to which the Gothic form of letters is giving way to the Latin in German publications may be seen from the data lately appearing in *Reform*, the monthly organ of the Verein für Altschrift, which is leading the battle against the "broken" or Gothic letters. Statistics running from 1864 to 1897 are published, from which it appears that in the first-mentioned year the percentage of German publications in Latin type was 21.76, and this has gradually increased until it is now 40.40 per cent. In other words, in the last twelvemonth there were 10,329 books published in Gothic and 7,003 in Latin letter. The distribution among the various branches of literature is noteworthy. The great bulk, namely, 90.18 per cent., of works in the departments of mathematics and natural sciences appears in the old or Latin type, followed by medicine, 82.06; architecture and engineering, 77.25 per cent.; geography, 75.45; economics and trade, 63.59; arts and theatre, 63.14; philosophy and theosophy, 61.80; and languages, literature, and antiquities, 61.44. Lowest and least in the scale are belles-lettres, 7.60; theology, 16.05; and pedagogics, 22.34 per cent. The more indistinct Gothic type found a strong defender in Bismarck, but the opponents emphasize the fact that only a mistaken patriotism pleads for its retention, as the Gothic letter is not at all a peculiarly German property, though the Germans are the only people who have made a general use of it apart from its original decorative purpose.

Since the demise of the *Magazine of American History* in 1893, the progress of historical coöperation and publication has been, we should have said, adverse to the revival of that once useful medium. An effort is making, however, to resuscitate it, with Mr. William L. Stone for editor in chief. Mr. Stone, whose address is Mount Vernon, N. Y., is chairman of the committee having the enterprise in charge.

Mr. Charles Welsh has satisfied himself that the Mother Goose rhymes and jingles have been preserved with remarkable purity in this country, and he now asks that such rhymes as are familiar in our nurseries, but are not to be found in the Mother Goose collections, may be brought to his attention. His address is Winthrop Highlands, Mass.

—A key to methods of business, legal usages, and popular manners and customs, at the end of the thirteenth century, is furnished in the 'Calendar of Letter-Books of the City of London, Letter-Book A. *circa* 1275-1298,' edited by Reginald R. Sharpe, D.C.L., just printed by order of the Corporation (London). The "Letter-Books" comprise volumes of the Records of London, and are so called "from their being severally distinguished by a letter of the alphabet." They cover a period from the early years of the reign of Edward I. to near the end of that of James II., three whole centuries and parts of two others. Those who know Riley's 'Memorials of London,' published in 1868, and consisting of extracts from the volumes relating to the earlier three of these five centuries, can guess at the nature of the contents of this book. It is, to be sure, what they call a "Calendar," that is, a sort of enlarged index, giving, in chronological order, a short summary of the contents; but this is furnished with a judgment and literary skill which preserve the interest as well as the substance of the original text. A great many pages of this volume (which covers pp. xii, 259, imp. 8vo) are filled with those recognizances, and enrolments on public records of deeds, bonds, leases, and contracts, by which our English ancestors obtained certainty and security in their business dealings, and a speedier remedy than the clumsy and dilatory methods of jury trial allowed. In dealing with foreign merchants especially, these ends were important. The very first entry of a recognizance (p. 3) is one in which "William Bukerel came to the Guildhall and acknowledged that he owed John de Schyhen, merchant of Brabant, £20 sterling to be paid [etc.]. And unless he did so he granted that the same should be levied on lands, rents and chattels, etc." When a man paid, wholly or in part, that fact also was entered on the record. In the case just mentioned, a marginal entry shows that the English merchant had paid—*quietus est.* These excellent methods, not unknown in modern practice, might well be followed in our times much more commonly than they are—methods by which, when an obligation is acknowledged of record, process may issue, on default, directly, without the delay of a trial. Of the many other interesting matters in this excellent book there is not room to speak. Although it is not distinctly so stated in the short introduction, it may be inferred that the whole series of Letter-Books is to be thus treated. It is much to be desired that they should.

—The new and revised edition of Sir Frederick Pollock's 'Spinoza' (London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Macmillan) is a boon to all readers of philosophy and of Spinoza. When first published in 1879, the book was at once recognized as the most interesting and valuable introduction to the study of Spinoza existing in English; but it speedily rose to famine prices, and even at these was very difficult to obtain. Hence it is a matter for congratulation that its accomplished author has, amid his manifold occupations, found the leisure to reissue it and to tell us what he thinks of the contributions to the knowledge of Spinoza which have been made in the last twenty years; for, of course, Germany has not been idle in the interval, while the learned men of Holland have prosecuted the research into the life, character, and times of Spinoza with the utmost assiduity. This minute research has added greatly to our knowledge of the facts in detail, but fortunately it has revealed nothing that could compel us to subject our estimate of Spinoza, as a man and as a philosopher, to a radical revision. In the philosopher it has brought out more strongly, perhaps, a number of Jewish and mediæval affinities that must be admitted to detract from the historical accuracy of an interpretation which, like Sir F. Pollock's, prefers to emphasize rather the anticipations of modern thought to be found in, or extracted from, Spinoza. But then Sir F. Pollock's modernizing tendency in this respect was avowedly deliberate, and has admittedly proved itself to be the stimulating and valuable factor in his reading of Spinoza, and so he was well-advised to leave his general treatment unchanged. Nor,

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again, have the new facts which have been unearthed about his life effected anything substantial in elucidating the mystery or in breaking the charm of Spinoza's personality. It still exercises a fascination which is greater and more widely felt than that of his doctrine; it still remains a matter of sympathetic imagination rather than of documentary evidence to penetrate through the atmosphere of philosophic detachment which conceals the inner self of the lonely maker of lenses. It is conceivable that the source and genesis of every one of his doctrines may be traced with incontestable accuracy, and that further additions may be made to our knowledge of the things he did and endured; but the abiding consolation will remain that the real problem of Spinoza, the real pathos of his life, can never be destroyed by the minutest searchings and researchings. And it is satisfactory to note that Sir F. Pollock appears to be of the same opinion.

—A foretaste of what may come to the United States is to be found in a Blue Book just issued on recent land legislation in Ceylon. The Government wished to put an end to disputes on claims to forest and waste lands, and framed a measure prescribing the manner of making entries and establishing possession. In due time it came before the Legislative Council, where it was debated by the Attorney-General, the Planting Member, the Governor, the General European Member, the Burgher Member, the Sinhalese Member, the Mohammedan Member, and the Tamil Member; the natives being opposed to the bill. Notices of claims were to be printed in the Gazette in the English, Sinhalese, and Tamil languages. The difficulty of treating the subject appears in the origin of most of these claims. Lands in large blocks are held by families of villagers, in undivided ownership, under grants made in remote ages by the Sinhalese kings. These grants were made by the delivery of small plates of copper or strips of ola leaf, called *sunnas*, or by a mere verbal expression of the King's pleasure. Most of the evidences have been destroyed, and in 1866 an ordinance was passed declaring all ancient documents inadmissible in evidence unless registered within a certain period—a requirement which the holders of these documents, mostly ignorant and poverty-stricken villagers, to whom the English language was unknown, were generally unable to observe from mere want of knowledge of the law. Long possession was the only means of proof of ownership, and possession was established by cultivation—chena cultivation in the case of high lands, from which a single crop was gathered at intervals of eight or more years, and rice on the low or marshy lands. Forest reserves for village purposes, and Patanas, or uncultivated wastes for grazing, were found necessary for the life of an agricultural community. The introduction of coffee culture threatened to lead to the alienation of land, but the nature of the soil proved unfit, and the leaf disease attacked what plants were set out. The success attending the culture of tea and cocoanuts has again raised the question, and the chena lands and village jungle, held by poor village communities, are sought to be sold as crown property. The evidence of the Government's Surveyor-General reads like a paragraph from a 'Century of Dishonor': "Patanas and jungles adjoining villages are too often sold without due regard to the grazing, water, and what may be termed jungle rights of the villagers, who, squeezed into a corner, are tempted to sell their chenas and fields, and, after spending the money in gambling and drink, become vagabonds." Crime is increasing throughout the island, and the Sinhalese are diminishing in numbers. It is admitted that there are evils connected with the unrestricted cultivation of chena lands as at present; but the interference of Government as outlined in this measure went too far. The whole report is worth a study as an example of the perplexities of colonial rule.

—During the past four years the Prussian Government has made repeated attempts to deprive Dr. Arons of his position as privat-docent in the University of Berlin because he is a Socialist. These efforts have been constantly defeated by the members of the Philosophical Faculty, who have steadfastly refused to discipline any academical colleague on account of his political opinions; and without their consent and coöperation nothing can be done. A few weeks ago the matter was again referred to the professors with the same result. They expressed their surprise that a man should be tried twice on the same charge without any additional evidence to sustain it, and declared their decision to be unalterable. They state, also, that Dr. Arons is a keen investigator and excellent instructor in his department of physics, and that he has never overstepped permissible limits in the expression of his views. His conduct is in this respect exemplary, and the formation of his opinions is his own affair. Meanwhile, it is reported that Dr. Arons has been appointed to the chair of physics in Würzburg as the successor of Prof. Röntgen, who has been called to Munich to fill the place left vacant by the recent death of Prof. Lommel. If this information be correct, and it is quite probable, it will not be the first time that Catholic Bavaria has taken occasion to teach Protestant Prussia a lesson in tolerance. Fifty years ago the Prussian Government removed a young physician and surgeon, Rudolf Virchow, from his position as prosector in the Berlin hospital and pathological institute "Charité" on account of his liberal political opinions. A few months later, he was appointed to a professorship in Würzburg, where he soon became so distinguished for his researches that in 1856 he was offered a professorship in the Berlin University, which he accepted. His subsequent brilliant career as a physiologist and pathologist is known to the scientific world. As one of the founders and leaders of the progressive party he has remained true to his political convictions, and for this reason is eyed askance by William II.; but he is too important a personage to be molested, since it is chiefly to him that the medical faculty of the Berlin University owes its reputation.

—The eclipse expeditions to India a year and a half ago, besides obtaining excellent observations, also aroused an interest in the question of the future direction and programme of work of the observatories which are under the control of the Indian Government, none of which have a sufficient equipment, or have so far issued results at all commensurate with the clear skies they enjoy. Both Mr. Christie and Sir Norman Lockyer, visiting India early in 1898, the Secretary of State requested these eminent astronomers to inspect these observatories and others in the realm, with a view to reporting upon them and drawing up a scheme for their consistent reorganization. At Dehra Dûn, under the direction of the Surveyor-General's Department, is an observatory where, for many years past, daily photographs of the sun have been taken under the auspices of the Solar Physics Committee of the Royal Society. Also, in Calcutta there is another observatory, for magnetic records chiefly and time determinations; besides still others at Simla, where the sun's radiant energy is studied, and at Poona, where Prof. Naegamvela, of the Royal College of Science, has prosecuted researches in solar physics. At Kodaikanal, too, in the Palni Hills, is in process of erection still another observatory under the supervision of Prof. Michie Smith, now director of the observatory at Madras, as successor to Prof. Norman Pogson, whose death occurred in 1891. As a result of the visitation of Mr. Christie and Sir Norman Lockyer, the research work of India in astronomy is to be carefully systematized and divided among the several observatories, the chief of which will be the new one at Kodaikanal, where observations of positions of the stars and sun, moon, and planets, in addition to investigations in solar physics, are to be prosecuted under the direction of the Government Astronomer of India, with a Deputy Astronomer and a staff of native assistants. A Board of Visitors, composed of the Surveyor-General, the Meteorological Reporter, so called, with one or two other officials, will make an annual inspection of the Indian observatories, and report to the Government on their condition and administration. All this signifies a conspicuous advance in astronomy and terrestrial physics in a land of high possibilities hitherto relatively unproductive.

RECENT WORKS ON DANTE.—II.

It was not in Germany alone that 1898 was a year of mark in the publication of books, relating to Dante and his works, of unusual interest and value. In England the issue of Mr. Paget Toynbee's 'Dictionary of Proper Names and Notable Matters in the Works of Dante' (Henry Frowde) provided students of the poet with a book of high quality. So far as its design extends, it covers similar ground to that embraced within the more extensive 'Enciclopedia' of Scartazzini, and a comparison of the two works goes far to establish the trustworthiness and value of each. Mr. Toynbee's scholarly work is a *comentum perpetuum* of the best sort—clear and full in statement, well proportioned in the treatment of its subjects according to their relative importance, and furnishing sufficient references to authorities. The good judgment and good scholarship of the compiler are manifest throughout. It is, indeed, to be noted with some regret that Mr. Toynbee's references to German authorities whose work would have supplied him with matter of value, are scanty. A few articles need revision to secure entire exactness or completeness of statement, but, taken as a whole, the volume is surprisingly free alike from errors of fact and errors of the press. Its value is enhanced by a long series of genealogical and chronological tables of dynasties and of important noble families frequently referred to by Dante, affording information not easily accessible elsewhere.

Another book, and one of admirable quality, which appeared in 1898 is Mr. Edmond G.

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Gardner's 'Dante's Ten Heavens: A Study of the Paradiso' (London: Archibald Constable & Co.). A more interesting original study of the poem has seldom been made. It is intended to serve as an introduction to the "Paradiso," and to expound the inner meaning of the deepest and most difficult part of the 'Divine Comedy'; for there is not only more of mediæval theology and scholastic philosophy in the "Paradiso" than in the preceding divisions of the poem, which require interpretation for the modern reader, but more also of meaning lying within the narrative, "hidden like a creature wrapped in its own silk." In order to penetrate to this meaning, both special studies and poetic insight are required. One of these is not enough. The study of the schoolmen, especially of the works of St. Thomas Aquinas, the chief teacher of theology to Dante, and also of the writings of St. Bernard, of Richard of St. Victor, and of the 'Sentences' of Peter Lombard, will afford a sufficient knowledge of the doctrine of the poem, but it is only by poetic insight that its true character will be recognized and its full significance and incomparable charm revealed. It is in this portion of the 'Divine Comedy' that Dante's poetic imagination displays its highest power. In "Hell" and "Purgatory" the clear vision of the imagination beholds and presents with intense realism scenes and incidents outside the limits of actual experience, yet not of a nature remote from it. But in the "Paradiso" the poet enters upon supersensual regions, where experience affords no guidance; yet even here, dealing with what might seem to lie above the mark of mortal powers, his imaginative vision is no less clear, and sees and shows its own creations with complete and convincing distinctness.

Mr. Gardner has made good study of the mediæval authorities, and is not devoid of the faculty requisite for the appreciation and elucidation of the inner significance of the poem. His work is free alike from exaggeration and from mysticism, faults into which it were easy to fall, and, while its author makes excellent use of the suggestions of other commentators, he has added fresh interpretations of his own which are often both lucid and illuminative. We know of no other book which affords more trustworthy guidance in the study of this portion of the 'Divine Comedy.' It is true, indeed, that some of Mr. Gardner's elucidations are questionable, and that occasionally he fails to set forth Dante's conception with clearness. For instance, the statement on p. 50 concerning the motion and influence of the spheres is hardly adequate as an exposition of a doctrine fundamental to the system of the universe as conceived by the doctors of the church whose teaching Dante follows. But, though Mr. Gardner's work lies open here and there to question and criticism, it is seldom that a book on Dante affords so much of interest from freshness of treatment, and so much of value as an original contribution to the better appreciation and fuller enjoyment of the 'Divine Comedy.'

America also furnished, in 1898, a book of great worth to the student of Dante, in the first part of the Catalogue, compiled by Mr. Theodore W. Koch, of the Dante Collection presented by Prof. Willard Fiske to the library of Cornell University. Both Collection and Catalogue are remarkable, the collection for its extent, it now being one of the largest, if not the largest, in the world of Dantesque literature; and the Catalogue for its comprehensive scope and fulness of treatment, which make it rather a general bibliography of Dante's works, and of works relating to him and to his writings, than a descriptive list of a special collection. It affords evidence on every page of the extraordinary industry, thoroughness, and intelligence of its compiler. This first part, a very handsome and admirably printed volume, in small quarto, of about one hundred pages with two columns to a page, comprises the list of Dante's works in the original and in translation. It gives full information in respect to the various editions of the works, including notes on their textual value, analyses of their subordinate contents, descriptions of their illustrations, and accounts of special points of interest in them. Translations are treated in a similar manner, with notes where desirable, in respect to the end aimed at by the translator, and occasionally with brief critical opinions as to their merit by scholars of authority. Nor is this all. Mr. Koch has made an extensive investigation of periodical literature, and has cited in their respective places such articles as contain matter worth recording in regard to the titles in his lists. Every scholar will recognize the value of this portion of his laborious work. Part II. of the Catalogue, comprising Works on Dante, is in the press, and Part III., containing a Supplement, and Index of Subjects, and an Appendix on the Iconography of Dante, will speedily follow. Altogether, the work promises, when complete, to be by far the most comprehensive, exact, and valuable Dante bibliography ever attempted, and will possess permanent value for every student engaged in the investigation of any subject relating to Dante and his work.

We pass now to some less important publications which have appeared in the current year, beginning with the fourth edition of the late Mr. Symonds's 'Introduction to the Study of Dante' (Macmillan), a reprint of the last which was published under its author's supervision, just before his lamented death in 1893. It is an instance of the survival of the unfit. The book was written in 1870, and was the first volume produced by Mr. Symonds's prolific pen. At the date of its publication in 1872, its existence was justified by the lack of any book in English treating satisfactorily of the life and work of Dante. Miss Maria Rossetti's 'Shadow of Dante' had, indeed, appeared in the preceding year; but this original and interesting work was little more than a systematic and intelligent exposition of the physical and moral conceptions embodied in the 'Divine Comedy,' and a summary narrative of the course of the poet through the eternal world. Mr. Symonds aimed to provide a general view of Dante's life and times, to set forth the qualities of his genius, the scheme of his chief poem, and the place of his work in the history of the development of Italian literature. The book did not display any considerable critical scholarship or poetic insight. It was marked by a certain superficiality of treatment, such as is not altogether absent from the writer's later and more important writings. His tastes directed his studies rather to the later Renaissance, and he was better fitted by nature, as well as by acquisitions, to deal with Petrarch and Boccaccio and their successors than with a genius such as that of Dante. But whatever value the book may have possessed it has now lost. The increase of knowledge in respect to Dante and his times has been so great during the past thirty years, and the recent critical study of his works has thrown so much new light upon them, that a book in which no account is taken of what has been done during this period is not merely antiquated, but in considerable part untrustworthy. Mr. Symonds's 'Introduction,' never really sufficient for its purpose, has become wholly insufficient, and beginners of the study of Dante should understand that it is no safe guide, and has no such intrinsic merits as make it worth reading for its own sake.

Almost at the same moment with the new edition of the 'Introduction' appears another book, with a similar design in part, the 'Dante Interpreted' of Mr. Epiphanius Wilson (Putnams). It might have been written by a pupil of Mr. Symonds who had learned little from other sources, and who had no special faculty for the task which he undertook. Its style indicates that it is the production of youth, and it is here and there as amusing as it is incorrect, as, for instance, in such a passage as the following:

"When we think of the placid life of such poets as Goethe or Tennyson, we see the trimly kept purlieus of a garden, the softness and smoothness of a meadowland and level river bank, the symmetry and completeness of a newly finished temple. When we come upon Dante's life we see that the garden has been trampled by a squadron of horsemen, an earthquake has heaved up the velvet basin of the valley, and the river is bursting through crags and over precipices, while the Grecian temple still stands half dismantled, and is blackened and broken with tempest and fire."

There are less futile things than this in the little volume, but it is so full of errors that such virtue as it may possess is more than counterbalanced by them. We open it at random, and find, p. 124, Oderisi da Gubbio called "Roman Oderisi"; p. 125, Provenzan Salvani is said to have "fallen at Montaperti." At the time of the victory of the Sienese in 1260 at Montaperti, Provenzan Salvani was at the head of affairs in Siena; nine years later, at the fight at Colle in the Val d'Elsa, he was taken prisoner and beheaded. P. 126, Sapia is said to have hated her countrymen "because she was in banishment," a statement for which, we believe, there is no foundation. But there are even more considerable errors than these. Piccarda is twice (pp. 71 and 159) spoken of as the *sister* of Dante's wife; on p. 166, Dante is said to be "accosted by the spirit of George Martel of Hungary," which should be corrected to Charles Martel of Naples; through his mother, Charles Martel was indeed titular King of Hungary, but he never visited that land or exercised rule over it. P. 70, Pier della Vigna is said to have been a man of *Tuscany*. P. 71, Sordello and Matilda (the Countess Matilda, see p. 137) are spoken of as contemporaries of the poet, but the last record of Sordello is of 1269, when Dante was four years old, and the Countess Matilda died one hundred and fifty years before Dante was born. The list of errors is not exhausted.

But 1899 has brought us one book of worth enough to make up for a wilderness of such books as Mr. Symonds's and Mr. Wilson's — the second volume of the Rev. Dr. Moore's admirable 'Studies in Dante.' We must reserve it for the special notice which it de-

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serves, meanwhile commending it as of great interest to all serious students of Dante.

LORD SELBORNE'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

Memorials, Part II. Personal and Political. 1865-1895. By Roundell Palmer, Earl of Selborne, Lord High Chancellor. 2 vols. Macmillan.

Quite apart from any personal interest which may be felt in Lord Selborne's character and career, the conclusion of his 'Memorials' is a biographical event of some moment. During the years covered by these final volumes, 1865-1895, the author occupied a position of undeniable eminence, and dealt with affairs of the highest public importance. His friendships were distinguished and numerous, his legal and political connections made him the confidant of jurists and statesmen. Although no one could well claim that he was the greatest lawyer who has reached the woolsack in this century, he proved an able Chancellor, and by the Judicature Act he left a mark upon the English legal system. Furthermore, the chiefs of both political parties are represented in his correspondence. After actively upholding Liberal principles throughout a generation, he grew alarmed at Gladstone's increasing radicalism, parted company with his old leader at the time of the Unionist schism, and for the last ten years of his life dealt hard blows at Home Rule, Welsh Disestablishment, and other causes which were espoused by his former colleagues. Finally, he is to be regarded as the foremost advocate of church principles among the Anglican laymen—the chairman in convocation of the lay house for the province of Canterbury, the darling of the Episcopal bench, and its hope when Nonconformist threats waxed loud. While science, literature, and art were unaffected by his influence, he touched the action of his age at many points, and what he writes about himself cannot be neglected.

Lord Rosebery, in addressing the House of Lords at the moment of Lord Selborne's death, recalled the late Chancellor's industry, "which was in reality sleepless, and of which the traditions surpass perhaps all that is known of human industry." On the best authority, no other lawyer has so carefully mastered the facts before entering court, and, to take a single example from his practice at the bar, Palmer once worked sixty hours together without getting a snatch of rest. The same diligence which was displayed in the long course from Winchester school to an earldom, continued when another man might have thought himself *rude donatus*. Lord Selborne kept steadily occupied long after his personal ambitions had been appeased, and, whether fighting publicly for principles or engaged privately in good works, his toil was incessant till death came. The one example of persistent effort which we have now in mind is that offered by the composition of his long autobiography. It was begun at the age of seventy-three, and carried steadily forward until about 2,000 printed pages had been produced. The proportion of letters and other allied matter is large, but, after all subtractions are made, the writer's own part still remains of ponderous bulk.

Like the autobiographical sketch which Darwin left, it was designed for the immediate family circle. Otherwise, the two narratives differ as widely as did their authors in particular beliefs and cast of mind. It would be invidious (and probably futile) to draw a contrast between the men themselves, because each was true and honest; but if literary effect alone be considered, Darwin's simplicity and directness are much more telling than Lord Selborne's minute and elaborate description of his own attitude towards sundry public questions. Considering the vast superiority of Darwin over Lord Selborne in the matter of general influence upon mankind, it may seem unreasonable that the latter should have been so prolix. Still, we must remember the total difference of circumstance between the two lives. After Darwin settled at Down, he had little to record except the publication of his several books. Lord Selborne was in the thick of the mêlée, and must tell of the blows he struck. The life active has a wider range of topics than the life contemplative or the life scientific.

Whether one derives more advantage from these two volumes than from their predecessors, will depend largely on whether one approaches them from the outside or the inside. During the period traversed in the second part, Palmer gained the summit of his power and fame, conducted cases of the first magnitude, acted for the Crown in the Geneva arbitration, and was a source of strength to any view or cause which he supported. Thus, lovers of gossip about public affairs will prefer the present instalment, looking at the matter merely from the standpoint of information. On the contrary, those who in reading biography keep their eyes fixed on the gradual unfolding of character, will hardly find the interest proportionately heightened by the tale of wealth and honors. It is true that Palmer's refusal of the Chancellorship in 1868, on grounds of conscience, may seem superior to any single act of integrity connected with his early days, and it is a fine thing to see men in high place continuing above reproach till the end; but for some reason the fruition of Lord Selborne's early resolves has impressed us less than the formative influences which were the means of shaping those resolves. Any one who sets out to direct his course by a religious rule, giving evidence thereof in his daily walk, will assuredly not escape being called a prig, especially if he makes public profession of his purpose. A good many gibes were levelled, at the first part of these memoirs on account of their pious tone, but, quite apart from theological opinion, Lord Selborne's constancy to his exacting views is proof of sincerity and strength. France, for instance, could hardly fail to profit by the sudden discovery among her lawyers and politicians of a few such persons as Lord Cairns and Lord Selborne. *Esto perpetua*—a motto which any country might gladly assume—is made to appear reasonable in states where even a few politicians are lovers of something higher than their own advantage.

Of the hundred subjects which are started by the episodes or interests of Lord Selborne's prime, we shall detach only a few from the mass as texts for our comment. The *Alabama* arbitration, the Judicature Act, and the breach with Gladstone over Home Rule were milestones in his career, and to these we shall mainly confine our attention. First on the list comes the *Alabama* difficulty, a case which at intervals occupied Palmer's mind from its appearance in 1862 till its settlement at Geneva in 1872. He was Solicitor-General when the Confederate cruiser left Liverpool, as leader for the Crown in the arbitration court he went exhaustively into the evidence, and even in his memoirs he returns with some zest to the merits of the controversy.

Almost precisely three years after Palmer had declined the Chancellorship, he was named principal counsel and left for Geneva amid showers of congratulation, Sir John Coleridge, for instance, declaring the appointment to be the greatest of all his professional successes. It may be gathered from the pains which he lavished on his meanest client that he threw himself unstintingly into this national cause, and the award gave him keen disappointment. His tone in addressing posterity regarding the claims and the personnel of the trial is a calm, judicial one; but while he studiously preserves a candid demeanor towards his associates and antagonists, he leaves an impression adverse to Sir Alexander Cockburn and to the legal intelligence of the board. He thus glances at the British arbitrator for his ill-advised vehemence: "He allowed his discontent at the manner in which the other arbitrators, overruling his opinion, conducted their proceedings, to appear too plainly, and, by so doing, may have thrown more power than was desirable into Mr. Adams's hands." Concerning the disinterested members of the tribunal he says: "Of the three, Count Sclopis had, in his own country, *some reputation as a jurist. If the other* two had ever studied law, it was (I suspect) but slightly, and perhaps only for the purpose of this arbitration." And in one or two passages he barely stops short of stating that the issue was prejudged. "Viscount d'Itajubà, the fairest man of the three, entered upon the arbitration as if there were no serious question, except as to the amount which Great Britain ought to pay; and this (if I may judge from a conversation which I had with him in his own house) he thought we need not much care about: 'Vous êtes riches, très riches,' he said."

Despite the adverse decision which was rendered at Geneva, Palmer's reputation suffered no loss through his part in that celebrated litigation. Lord Hatherley's eyesight failing in the summer of 1872, the woolsack became vacant, and Gladstone renewed the offer already made in 1868. No stumbling-block like the Irish Church Resolutions now presented itself, and, on his return to England, Palmer without delay or difficulty accepted the seals. He entered office full of energy and reforming zeal, the immediate effect of which was the Judicature Act of 1873. Lord Selborne was not the first Chancellor to be impressed by the conflicting jurisdictions of the English legal system. Lord Hatherley and Lord Cairns had both seen the need of simplifying the cumbrous machinery of justice, but Selborne must receive full credit for grappling with the subject of appellate jurisdiction, and for drafting a bill which could be carried through both houses of Parliament. Difficulties certainly arose over the question of taking from the House of Lords "the authority exercised in their name by the legal members," and on Disraeli's return to power in 1874 the jurisdiction of this chamber, "strengthened by the addition of two, and eventually four, salaried life peers, was restored." Still, the new act escaped other

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organic modifications, and has proved a great boon. It constituted one High Court of original jurisdiction, consisting of various divisions as the convenience of business required,

"giving to all the Judges, in every Division, equal jurisdiction in Equity as well as in Law, enabling them all to give assistance, when needed, in Divisions not their own; providing for a procedure, in all divisions, as far as possible uniform, making all times, throughout the legal year, available for all London business, and excluding all unnecessary circuity or multiplicity of proceedings with reference to the same dispute, or between the same contending parties."

Lord Selborne drafted the whole measure with his own hand and considered it his enduring work. "If I leave any monument behind me which will bear the test of time, it may be this."

Lord Lyndhurst was Chancellor four times, and Lord Selborne, by steadily following Gladstone's leadership, might have enjoyed the same remarkable experience, for in 1892 he was disqualified neither by failing health nor failing faculties. But Home Rule, Disestablishment, and the rest of Gladstone's radical programme after 1885, brought about a breach of the co-operation which till that date had been long and intimate. Though personal friends, they had never reached terms of the closest confidence. Lord Selborne ascribes this fact partly to the urgent claims of legal practice upon his time, partly to having met Gladstone only after their school and college days were over, and even more to a third cause. "The attraction of common principles on subjects to which we both attached cardinal importance was limited between us by a tendency to divergence of opinion, after a certain point, as to their practical application." From occupying a seat in the Lords, Selborne could take no part in the election of 1885, and he devoted the holiday thus afforded him to an outing in Italy. While away from the country, he heard that the left wing of the Liberal party was exacting Disestablishment pledges in certain constituencies. Disturbed at such news, he corresponded with Gladstone, and found that on a "test question" their views seriously diverged.

The final political rupture (it was unaccompanied by any acute personal friction) occurred at the end of January, 1886. The elections gave the Liberal party a majority of eighty-four over the Conservatives, leaving out of account altogether eighty-six Irish Home-Rulers. Prior to the voting, no scheme of Home Rule had been fathered by Gladstone, and Lord Selborne ascribes his action in 1886 to fear that the Tories might capture the Irish with some Home Rule proposition of their own. "But I have never myself doubted that, on this as well as other occasions, the motives which had most influence upon his [Gladstone's] conduct—right or wrong, wise or unwise—were higher and more honorable than those of mere personal ambition." Selborne did not turn his back on all schemes to create "an Irish legislative body for Irish affairs." He stipulated, however, as fundamental principles, the protection of the landlords, and the exclusion of the Irish from Westminster as soon as their separate legislature were constituted. Two days after he had framed this ultimatum (January 30, 1886) he was asked by Gladstone if he could not again accept the seals. The next morning they met to discuss a basis of possible agreement:

"Our conversation was very friendly, but the result was that I did not think the prospect of our agreement about Ireland sufficient to justify me in accepting a place in his cabinet. If he could succeed in producing measures by which my difficulties might be overcome, I might be more useful to him out of office than in it; if not, my duty would be to oppose him, which I could best do by retaining in the meantime my independence. We parted with expressions of affection and regret, but we parted, practically, for ever."

Lord Selborne's autobiography abounds with character sketches of the author's friends and adversaries; *e. g.*, Lord Westbury, Lord Cairns, Sir Alexander Cockburn, Lord Salisbury, Sir William Harcourt, Lord Granville, and, most conspicuous of all, Mr. Gladstone himself. Its chief merit will, according to some, be found in these judgments. They are carefully weighed and do not sacrifice truth to epigram. By far the most studied of them is that with which the work closes, the estimate of Gladstone. Merely as a piece of writing, it gives evidence of careful revision; it is twenty pages long, and it contains an account of Selborne's attitude towards him from the beginning of their connection to a time when each was more than eighty years old. We shall not attempt to compress into a few lines the minute analysis of qualities which constitutes this historical portrait, but we may say that, however emphatically Lord Selborne differed from the radicalism of Gladstone's old age, he never impugns his leader's motives. He can even bring himself at the end to say:

"Whatever he may have done, or may yet do, to increase the power of some of the adversaries of the Christian faith, he has himself not ceased to be among its defenders. Nor can I wonder that, to such as share his enthusiasm, see with his eyes, and judge with his judgments, he should appear, not (as he does to me) a Hercules no longer master of himself, using his strength blindly for ends not his own, but an Alexander who has discovered new worlds to conquer."

Lord Selborne's affection for the Anglican church was such that he inclined to reckon among "adversaries of the Christian faith" any one who might advocate Disestablishment. Yet he was not a bigot. He could give calm reasons for any course he took. If, as Lord Salisbury says, "he was a strong party man, and he did his best for his party," he could never be styled a bitter partisan. Both publicly and privately he lived in the spirit of the motto which is inscribed over the fireplace in his hall at Blackmoor: "Ego autem et domus mea serviemus Domino."

George Müller of Bristol and his Witness to a Prayer-Hearing God. By Arthur T. Pierson, author of 'The Crisis of Missions,' etc., etc. With an Introduction by James Wright, son-in-law and successor in the work of George Müller. New York: The Baker & Taylor Company.

For both the zealous believer and the curious psychologist the life of George Müller was a very interesting one. The latter may be inclined to question his sincerity, but can, we think, impugn it only within very narrow limits—those of a self-deception to which Müller lent himself unconsciously for the most part. His biography, as we have it here, is written in a spirit favorable to the acceptance of all the miracles that have been reported from the earliest times—the spirit of one of Müller's favorite texts, "Open thy mouth wide and I will fill it"; the eyes meantime being shut as close as possible. There is not a suggestion of the critical attitude from the first page to the last. On the other hand, there are no ingenious attempts to cover up certain things which, to any one at all critically disposed, must obviously suggest a doubt of the complete validity of Müller's extraordinary claims for the methods and results of his phenomenal career. The book is written in the dialect of that vulgar piety whose slang expressions are the current coin of camp-meetings and revivals. These expressions may commend it to the constituency on which Mr. Pierson relies for the success of his venture, but, if they do not, it is not as if his reliance were upon these alone. A foot-note reads: "The author of this memoir purposes to give a copy of it to every foreign missionary and to workers in the home fields, so far as means are supplied in answer to prayer." That the children of this world are wiser in their generation than the children of light is not so sure, perhaps, in our own time as it was formerly.

The frontispiece portrait of George Müller is a frank and interesting comment on the later pages of the book. It is convincing that his self-confidence was equal to his confidence in God. And, indeed, the self-confidence of the man must have been enormous for him to imagine that he could at almost any time subject the universe to his convenience and control, and use the Deity as an errand-boy to run hither and thither with this message or that timely or belated meal. We say "at *almost* any time," because Mr. Müller did a great deal of praying which was without immediate result. Every day for half a century and more he prayed for the conversion of two friends, naming them every time as if to avoid misunderstanding, but they remained unconverted. Nothing daunted, he confidently expected to meet them in the happy fields, holding God in honor bound to see to it that so much good praying should not go for nought. There were no exceptions to his faith in prayer, but sometimes his ingenuity was severely taxed to account for the apparent exceptions and the long delays. The death of his first wife seemed at the time an untoward circumstance, but when afterward he made a series of world-wide missionary journeys, it became evident why she was taken: she could not at her age have endured those journeys; the second wife, a much younger woman, took to them like a duck to water.

At times both the treasury and the larder ran very low, and many remarkable instances are given of the help which never came too late. Sometimes the children of the Bristol Orphan Houses sat down to empty tables, but they never went away from them hungry. It must be confessed that some of the instances recorded are more eloquent of the naïveté of Müller's "jealousy for God" than of miraculous interposition. For example, we are innocent-

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ly told that one of two pence given by a poor woman was "just the amount required to make up the sum needed to buy bread for immediate use." At another time eight pence more were needed to buy bread, and only seven could be got together. "But on opening one of the contribution boxes, *one penny* only was found deposited, and thus a single penny was traced to the Father's care." It was nice reckoning that could make the necessities in these cases jump with the timely aid. Müller's "jealousy for God" was a strong point with him. He was jealous for His reputation as a prayer-hearing and prayer-answering God, and he got a tremendous leverage by bringing this idea to bear upon the Eternal. Either He must answer Müller's prayers for this or that particular benefit, or be openly disgraced. If there is a suggestion of blackmail in this for the ungodly, with Müller it was a logical part of a consistent scheme. It may be objected that his ideas of God and prayer were unspiritual and mechanical and gross. They must seem so to a great many excellent people. They did not seem so to him, or, if they did, they were no worse to him on that account.

There was one way in which Müller came to the rescue of the Almighty's reputation which smacks of fraudulent practice, if his biographer has not done him gross injustice where he has written:

"It has, since Mr. Müller's departure, transpired how large a share of the donations are to be traced to him; but there is no means of ascertaining as to the aggregate amount of the secret gifts of his coworkers in this sacred circle of prayer."

If Müller and his coworkers held in reserve the right to answer their own prayers in cases of extremity, we have a very sensible diminution of the wonderfulness of his emergence from some trying situations. The amount of Müller's help to his own schemes is set down as having been more than £80,000. So much generosity on his part would seem to leave a narrow margin for divine interposition.

The sceptical have frequently made this criticism upon Müller's work: that his prayers were *over*-heard, and that they advertised his necessities and put the faithful on their honor to maintain a man of such principles and a work conducted so piously. But Mr. Pierson assures us that great pains were taken to conceal the necessities of the Bristol Orphanage. At one time, we are told, the annual report was kept back for several months when the conditions were precarious. But this was not done more than once, and it is obvious that, in a general, if not in a particular, way, the avowed methods of Müller's work and its various needs were kept steadily in the public view. It is equally obvious that a good deal of worldly prudence mingled with Müller's piety. It is significant that when certain friends were starting for the Continent, he not only prayed for their personal safety and the safety of their luggage, but made a note that several pieces of the latter were thrust into a boot under the coach where they might easily be overlooked. Mohammed's advice to Omar, "*Tie* thy camel and commit him to God," was such as Müller would have approved. It must ever be impossible to say how much his prayers and how much his prudence availed for the success of his great Orphanage. Counted in pounds sterling, this success was certainly immense—£988,829 from first to last. This for the orphan work alone. Nearly £500,000 more came in for other uses. At the start no orphans were prayed for. They were taken for granted, and it looked for a time as if Müller had reckoned without his host. But it arrived in time, more than ten thousand strong. Five orphan-houses were built from time to time. Eventually they proved more than sufficient for the orphans that could be aggregated. But this was because other similar institutions had sprung up all over the country. A careful sociological study of the character of Müller's work and its effects is a desideratum.

It is a far cry from his theological opinions to those of the modern scholar. He confidently expected the return of Jesus to this world, and his purpose was not to save everybody—a clear impossibility—but to make up a church of select Christians fit to receive Jesus at His coming. The Bible was for him verbally infallible, and he read it through nearly two hundred times, and in its isolated texts found guidance equal to every possible emergency. In general his exegesis impresses us as much more simple and straightforward than that of the average popular preacher of our time. His endeavor was to find out what the Bible actually taught and to shape his action on its words. Told that he must turn the other cheek to the smiter, it did not occur to him that this might be interpreted as a command to knock him down and grind his face into the dust.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barnett, P. A. Common Sense in Education and Teaching. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Brooks, Sarah P. In the Bivouac of Life. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
Craddock, C. E. The Bushwhackers, and Other Stories. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Du Bosc, Prof. W. P. The Soteriology of the New Testament. New edition. Macmillan.
Forman, L. L. A First Greek Book. Harpers.
Ganong, Prof. W. F. The Teaching Botanist. Macmillan. $1.10.
Hornung, E. W. Dead Men Tell No Tales. Scribners. $1.25.
Kingsley, Prof. J. S. Text-Book of Vertebrate Zoölogy. Henry Holt & Co. $3.
Le Bon, Gustave. The Psychology of Socialism. Macmillan. $3.
Memoirs of the Prince de Ligne. Translated by Katharine P. Wormeley. 2 vols. Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.
Patrick, Mary M. Sextus Empiricus and Greek Scepticism. London: Bell & Sons.
Rayner, Emma. In Castle and Colony. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Sill, Rev. F. S. A Year-Book of Colonial Times. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
The Sonnets of William Wordsworth. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Vachell, H. A Drama in Sunshine. Macmillan. $1.50.
Walkey, S. For the Sake of the Duchesse. F. A. Stokes Co.
Warren, Kate M. Langland's Vision of Piers the Plowman. Done into Modern Prose. 2d ed., largely revised and corrected. Macmillan.

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